

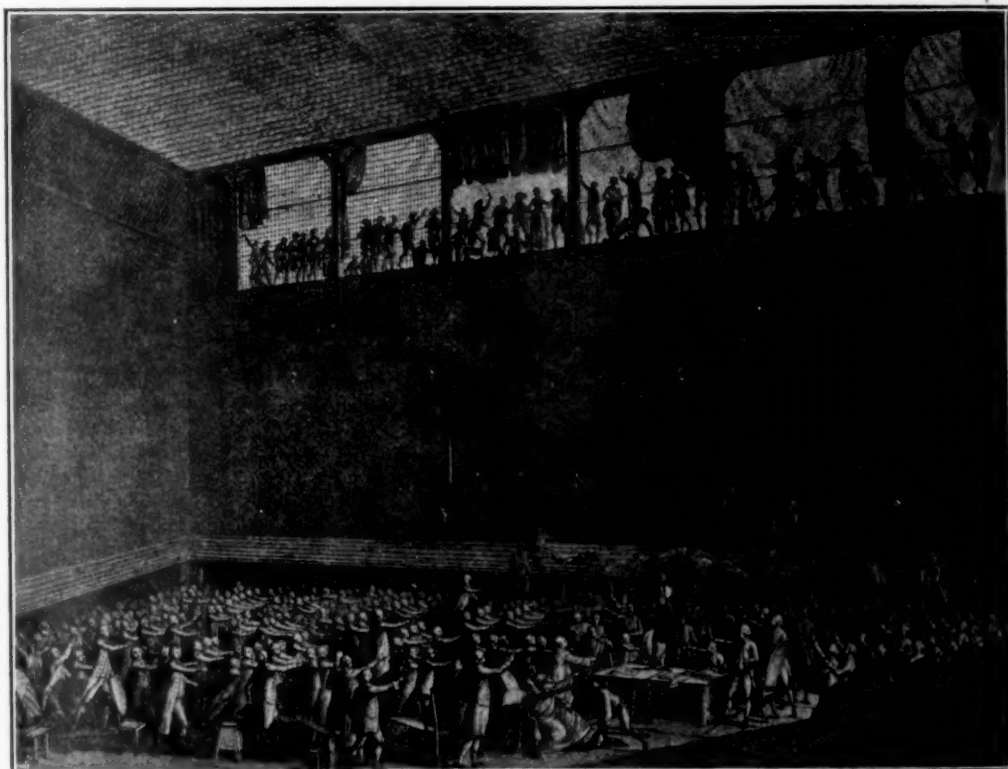
The History Teacher's Magazine

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Volume IV.
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PHILADELPHIA, NOVEMBER, 1913

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The History Teacher's Magazine

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Propriety and Value of the Study of Recent History

BY PROFESSOR CARLTON HUNTLEY HAYES, COLUMBIA UNIVERSITY.

What I have to say on this subject is at once an apology and a plea for the painstaking study of recent events and for the presentation in our classrooms of the results of our research. I shall insist first upon the *propriety* of recent history—that is, to say, that the scholarly investigation of social and political phenomena of the last two or three decades is within the legitimate province of professional historians. In the second place, I shall emphasize the *value* of teaching recent history, especially the value accruing to students. In other words, my general thesis is that no important theoretic objection can reasonably be urged against this study, and for its teaching every practical consideration bespeaks the need.

I have some fear that limitations of time and place will not enable me to make my position perfectly clear. I appreciate full well that the professed historian—he that searches original documents or rewrites them or expounds them—is already harassed almost to the death by demands for recognition from the anthropologist or psychologist or sociologist, as well as from him whose peculiar interest in the interpretation of history is rather narrowly intellectual or religious or economic or social or political. To a group of scholars already exhausted by over-much discussion of the simple question—What is History?—I venture to come and beg of them that they number within the orthodox fold such of us as deal chiefly with events of recent times.

Not only as a postulant do I present myself, but as an apologist, for, after all, from one standpoint, I have nothing particularly new or startling to offer. Two years ago the Committee of Five of the American Historical Association formally recommended that more time be allowed in the secondary school curriculum for modern history, because, as they said, "Many teachers have come to feel strongly that a study of the past should distinctly help in understanding the present; they believe that for a knowledge of present social and political conditions there is need of a reasonable familiarity with the great changes of the past century, and that history courses should be so arranged as to allow ample opportunity for the study of the development and progress of modern Europe."¹ And I am well aware that the history teachers in secondary schools even more than in colleges are tending in increasing numbers to share the committee's point of view and to reinforce the logic of the report with practical experiments. Re-

cent history is now actually taught, and taught widely. And so I shall doubtless be defending what some of you are already doing. It may be that I shall be carrying coals to Newcastle.

Quite aware of these drawbacks to my subject, I have nevertheless persisted in a desire to make a few observations on the propriety and value of the study of recent history, not because I think them in every case supremely needful nor because I would raise old-fashioned, bootless queries as to the true scope and content of history, but for the simple reason that my conception of the historians' guild is one in which the injunction holds good, "Confirm thy brethren."

At the very outset, it is expedient that we agree on a definition of terms. Precisely what is meant by the words "recent history"? Now, obviously, "history" is broad enough to include research and study and presentation of anything of the past or any part of the past. But what distinguishes real history from any other handling of past events is the peculiar quality of mind or character which historical labor presupposes. That character—that essential quality of the historian's mental equipment—is a critical spirit, a fastidious sense which enables a man to weigh evidence, to compare and contrast, not to exaggerate this unduly, or underestimate that, but to act with reason, with discernment, with a mind free from partiality and prejudices, and to draw conclusions which are as relatively true as human nature may attain. Any person who is endowed with such qualities or has formed such a character is historical-minded, and any one who applies such an endowment to the construction of studies is an historian, whether he works among the tombs of the valley of the Nile or in rural markets of a mediaeval world or in agnostic books of a Voltaire or a Diderot or in the presence of soldiers and photographers of the last siege of Adrianople. With any of these topics the historian may legitimately concern himself, provided always—and this condition cannot be too rigorously emphasized—that he employ his critical faculty.

In a sense, the word "recent" is a serious misnomer. Now that we have all read Sir Charles Lyell's "Antiquity of Man" or Charles Darwin's "Descent of Man" or some work inspired by them, we begin to understand that man in one form or another has existed upon this globe hundreds of thousands of years and that the earth preceded man in existence by thousands of centuries. Yet written documents or sources on which the historian must rely reach back but to a paltry six thousand years.

¹ "The Study of History in Secondary Schools, Report of the Committee of Five" (1911), p. 53.

The whole recorded history of our species, which our colleagues have conventionally styled ancient or mediaeval or modern, is but of yesterday in the vast epic of creation. It is natural for us to exclaim with Emerson, "In the eternity of nature how recent our antiquities appear." But I do not purpose to use the word "recent" in a geological sense. It might be unfair, and I have no temptation to quibble. By "recent" I mean actual events of the past few years—the last generation, let us say. It is in behalf of the direction of some of our critical investigation toward the achievements of the last generation that I make this plea. Mark well that it is a plea for the study and teaching of recent history, not for the conduct of a class in mere "current topics." The latter may be informing, but it is not history, because it is not linked up with other and earlier doings of man, and because it does not necessarily encourage the exercise of the essential faculty of historical-mindedness, what I have repeatedly termed the critical spirit. Not only the word "recent," but the word "history," must be stressed. And, furthermore, let it be understood firmly and definitely by everyone that a defense of recent history should not be construed as an attack direct or by implication upon ancient or mediaeval or any other kind of history. Experience in the recent field will speedily convince the scholar that he must continually utilize the produce of workers in other, and mayhap distant, fields. For the modern historian there is no more isolation of time than of place.

Now let us approach the subject of *propriety*. Suppose we ask ourselves whether recent history is real history—whether it is as proper and as becoming to staid historians to study the Dreyfus case or the Portuguese Revolution or the Lloyd-George Budget or the Russo-Japanese War as to discuss the Benedictine Rule or the Italian Expedition of Charles VIII or the Puritan Revolution or to determine the main achievements of the twelfth dynasty of Egyptian kings. At least three considerations may make us hesitate before answering the question in the affirmative. (1) There is undoubtedly a feeling that we do not possess the sources of information about recent times as comfortably as we control those relating to more distant days. We are told, especially by certain men who emphasize the scientific character of history, that the sources and methods of recent history are defective. (2) It is charged that to study, certainly to write, recent history is bound to savor of journalism and is surely a departure from the correct standards of classical historians. (3) It has been repeatedly affirmed—this is, after all, to my way of thinking, the chief difficulty—that the writer is more likely to be biased, and therefore to lose proper perspective, in dealing with the recent past than in treating of the distant past. Anything that gives free rein to bias or prejudice deserves speedy condemnation, for bias is inimical to truth, and truth is the soul of history. On each one of these three considerations I would invite your reflection. The *propriety* of recent history is at stake.

In respect of the methods of recent history, I must confess my inability to understand why they cannot be identical in spirit with those of other varieties of history. Some fault might be found with ancient history, or even with that of the middle ages, on the ground that the paucity of primary sources militates against the highest type of historical reconstruction. But with the invention of printing at the close of the fifteenth century historical material begins to expand in manner almost as bewildering as a geometrical progression. The century which left the largest record of itself is the nineteenth—the century in which the Industrial Revolution put steam to the printing presses and daily girdled the globe with newspapers—the century in which democracy budded and bloomed and incidentally strewed everywhere, like pollen, records of parliamentary debates and statutes and commission reports, until, as Proudhon said, the age will be dubbed by geologists of the millennium as the *papyraceous* age. Indeed, one is sometimes tempted to think that the mass of sources of all kinds for the times of Bismarck, Disraeli, Gambetta, Lloyd-George and Roosevelt equals in bulk all that we have for the history of the western world before their day. Just call to mind the newspapers, pamphlets, reviews, parliamentary and congressional records, speeches, blue-books, reports, census returns. In literature, moreover, men write in the nineteenth century with a cogency and a wealth of intimate detail and a large grasp on the various political, social, economic, religious and intellectual interests of humanity which we find only in part or miss altogether in what comes down to us from the earlier centuries.

To these sweeping generalizations about the scope and bulk of source-material for recent history, one exception must be made. The history of recent diplomacy and international politics cannot be fully treated until the secrets of foreign chanceries are divulged, and many archives, now closed, are opened. But even this limitation is possibly more apparent than real. It should be borne in mind that diplomacy, like much else, has been revolutionized by democracy and the telegraph, and that, regardless of our inability to follow at times the minutiae of the construction of a government's foreign policy, we can usually note external results of that policy. Thus, while we may not know the exact terms and conditions of the Triple Alliance, we may observe with genuine profit the public attitude of Austria or Germany or Italy toward the Balkan situation.

With this one qualification, it may be affirmed that the difficulty in applying sound historical method to recent history is no longer to find apt and varied information on the conditions and trend of events, but rather to avoid being overwhelmed by that which presses in from all sides. And sometimes the very historian who has been convinced that there is the greatest wealth of source-material for the history of our own times will spurn or ignore it on the ground that there is too much or that it is not sifted and organized. With this attitude of mind, I have little sympathy, because, after all, what is the historian's first business if it is not to sift and organize source-

material, and why should the amount of work stagger the conscientious, enthusiastic searcher after truth? Mere lack of organization of sources should not content us with knowing more about Charlemagne than about Bismarck. It is a demonstrable fact that we can know more about Bismarck than about Charlemagne, and only the lazy man will refuse to carry the demonstration to its logical end. As soon as the interest in recent history is recognized as thoroughly legitimate, historians will find this great new field in which to pitch their tents and to apply their most approved methods of tillage.

We come now to the real crux of the matter of propriety—the questions of novelty and perspective. Is it not a dangerous innovation to treat recent events as historical? Have not the most reputable historians established an accurate perspective in proportion as they have refrained from dealing with their own times?

In this appeal to authority and example, curiously enough the advocates of recent history will find quite as many supporters as will their opponents. In fact, it will be discovered that reputable historians can fairly easily be divided into two classes; first, those who have studied and written of their own times, and, second, those who have investigated and reported on times anterior to their own, and that the names in the former class are quite as impressive as those in the latter. The traditional founder of our subject, Father Herodotus himself, owes his reputation not to the earlier portions of his work, which have suffered severe criticism, but to his narrative of the great Persian war and those local and other details which belonged to his own day and generation; the authority of his "recent" history is accepted by many of the most sceptical of moderns, and forms the basis of their own accounts. If Thucydides is esteemed more scientific than Herodotus, it must be remembered that he was writing of the Peloponnesian war from first-hand information; and it was of the treatment of current events that he explained his soundly scholarly method: "As to the deeds done in the war, I have not thought myself at liberty to record them on hearsay from the first informant or on arbitrary conjecture. My account rests either on personal knowledge or on the closest possible scrutiny of each statement made by others. The process of research was laborious, because conflicting accounts were given by those who had witnessed the several events, as partiality swayed or memory served them."

How strongly the ancients held to the view that the historian should concern himself primarily with the happenings of his own day is naïvely stated by Isidore of Seville, that interesting encyclopaedist of the seventh century: "History is the story of what has been done, and by its means what has taken place in the past is perceived. It is called in the Greek *historia*, that is, from seeing (*videre*) and learning (*cognoscere*). For among the ancients, no one wrote history unless he had been present and witnessed what was to be described. For we understand what we see better than we do what we gather by hearsay.

For what is seen is told without lying. This study belongs to grammar because whatever is worth remembering is entrusted to letters." . . .¹

We might go down the list of recognized historians and point out that if those who had written of their own times were now banned as impostors and excluded from our guild what a slight remnant would remain as our professional forebears. If you condemn the "recent" historian, you are condemning Herodotus, Thucydides, Xenophon, Caesar, Sallust, Tacitus, Ammianus, Eusebius, Einhard, Joinville, Otto of Freising, Bishop Burnet, Ranke, Sybel, Seignobos, Macaulay, Spencer Walpole, Karl Marx. Destroy the like of these and we would be pitiable orphans in an inexplicable world.

One conclusion we may now accept, that many eminent and scholarly historians, by writing of their own times, have vicariously removed from present-day advocates of recent history the stigma of defending novelties. But more suggestive from our point of view than any appeal to conventional authority is an investigation into the problem of perspective. I am free to admit that I have only a vague idea as to what is meant by the much-used word "perspective." Perspective is something that is perpetually in a state of flux—ever fluid, changing, varying along with that other vague thing—the "spirit of the age"—the *Zeitgeist*. History has always been not merely man's past, but what man from age to age has thought it was. The historian, rather than individual facts, has made history, and the historian has always been influenced by the period in which he lived. The ancients found in history the stuff of which literature was made—Clio was a sister muse to those of the drama and of poetry. The Christian fathers, such as Augustine, Lactantius, Orosius, and Salvian, to mention only early ones, discovered in history the evidence of God's providence and the proof of His vengeance. To the Deists and rationalists of the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries—Gibbon, for instance—history opened vistas of reason and law and order and supplied examples in statecraft and the succession of empires. The evolutionary conceptions of the nineteenth century added a philosophy and a scientific method. And the Industrial Revolution has of late emphasized the importance of social and economic history. The perspective of history has been, then, at different times predominantly that of literature, ethics, law, philosophy, science, or economics.

If this assumption is correct, we must face the logical deduction that *every* historian has been influenced to greater or less degree by the perspective of his own day and place, and that it has mattered very little whether the field of his research was immediate or remote. I have already shown that reputable historians are divisible into two classes; those writing of their own times, and those writing of times anterior to their own. I make no effort to deny that the former have been influenced by the point of view and the major interests of the environment in which they

¹ "The Etymologies—On Grammar," Ch. 41.

lived. But I am now prepared to assert that the latter have been likewise influenced, that historians of the more distant past have often displayed too fondly their individual predilections or the bias of their own age. Let us call up a few illustrious names.

Take Gibbon. He wrote of what was to him a distant past, and yet his own explanation of his method sounds strangely like that of Thucydides, the writer of current events: "I have always endeavored to draw from the fountainhead; my curiosity, as well as a sense of duty, has always urged me to study the originals; and if they have sometimes eluded my search, I have carefully marked the secondary evidence on whose faith a passage or a fact were reduced to depend." Granted that the two proclaim a striking similarity of aim and method, does Gibbon show better perspective and less bias than Thucydides? Without directly answering the question, we may quote Gibbon's famous summary of his own monumental labor—"I have described the triumph of barbarism and religion"—for it also indicates a perspective, and an even more personal perspective than that of Thucydides. It is important to remember that Gibbon was a true son of the eighteenth century; he had studied with sympathy Locke and Montesquieu and the *philosophers*; he despised revealed religion and ecclesiastical organization; he lauded science and natural law and the deeds of great dominions and potentates; even the style of expression is as distinctly a mark of his own age as the artificialities in the novels of Rousseau. The perspective of *The Decline and Fall* is a perspective of the eighteenth century; the period of the dissolution of the Roman Empire had another perspective; the perspective of the nineteenth century is something else; and that of the twentieth century may be yet different. Professor Bury intimates that finality of perspective in dealing with the distant past is an impossible ideal. "If Gibbon were writing now," he says, "the tone of his 'candid and rational inquiry' would certainly be different. His manner would not be that of sometimes open, sometimes transparently veiled dislike; he would rather assume an attitude of detachment. He would be affected by that merely historical point of view, which is a note of the present century and its larger tolerances; and more than half disarmed by that wide diffusion of unobtrusive scepticism among educated people, which seems to render offensive warfare superfluous."²

Probably no one has contributed more to the scientific theories of historical research than Ranke with his axiomatic dictum: *Ich will bloss sagen wie es eigentlich gewesen ist*. Now Ranke divided his labor between events of the immediate past and those of the more distant past. In both fields, however, he at once displayed the historian's spirit of criticism and certainly reflected the influence of his own environment. It was his interest in the practically contemporaneous Servian Revolution that led him to publish a history of it in 1829; it was the stirring scenes in

the War of 1877 that revived his interest in the Balkan situation and caused him to expand his earlier work into a history of Servia and Turkey in the nineteenth century. It was the remarkable Catholic revival in his own country in the first half of his own century that undoubtedly stimulated Ranke's studies of the papacy of the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries. Then, too, it was Ranke's privilege to watch with his own eyes the rise of a new political entity, United Germany; no wonder that in a period seemingly dominated by blood and iron the historian should deal by preference with the rulers and chief potentates of the world, and that throughout all his writings should run a contemptuous disregard of the plain people, a neglect of economic problems, and a glorification of political institutions, especially the State. Ranke's country and century conditioned his perspective in viewing the distant as well as the recent past.

It was likewise with Macaulay. The English nobleman was a Liberal member of Parliament vitally interested in the problems created by the Industrial Revolution, and his social and Whiggish preferences are easily recognizable in his historical writing. His perspective, like that of Ranke or of Gibbon, was of his own generation. Only his English environment in the middle of the nineteenth century would enable Macaulay to plead for his own conception of utilitarian history, and to write, "What do we mean when we say that one past event is important and another insignificant? No past event has any intrinsic importance. The knowledge of it is valuable only as it leads us to form just calculations with respect to the future. A history which does not serve this purpose, though it may be filled with battles, treaties, and commotions, is as useless as the series of turnpike tickets." . . .³

If time permitted, I might cite many another instance of a perspective supplied by the author's own environment. That such men as Mommsen, Freeman, Aulard, Luchaire and Fustel de Coulanges cannot fully escape the charge, is in itself no overwhelming indictment against their historical-mindedness or their undoubted position as eminent historians. That a similar charge may with justice be levelled against writers of recent events, is in itself no impossible barrier to the admission of such men to the historians' guild, provided, of course, that when they deal with the Turkish War of 1912, as with the Crusades, they keep ever before their eyes Ranke's dictum: *Wir wollen bloss sagen wie es eigentlich gewesen ist*.

Not everyone who has called himself an historian has practised this golden rule of the historians' cult, and I am ready to admit that many professed historians who have written of contemporary events have painfully and guiltily prevaricated or woven into their stories feelings and sentiments of their own. But I insist that that comes not so much from the nature of the subject matter as from the lack of historical-mindedness on the part of the particular writer, and if the same writer were to turn his atten-

² J. B. Bury, in the introduction to his edition of Gibbon, p. xxxix.

³ "Critical and Historical Essays," Vol. V, p. 155. (London, 1879.)

tion to the Trojan War, he would probably find it easy to saddle the Greeks with all his peculiar present-day hobbies. I believe that the careful, painstaking, critical scholar, trained in the methods of scientific history, will be no more likely to go wrong in recent than in far-away times.

I have now offered a few suggestions in defense of the propriety of studying recent history in a scholarly manner. Abundant materials are at hand; the method is clear; the difficulty of perspective should not disturb us. The second series of suggestions—those relating to the value of teaching recent history—are simple and need not long detain us.

I appreciate the fact that I am addressing auditors who sympathize with the contention that real history is the most valuable of all humanistic studies; that, in our modern evolutionary habits of mind, recently impregnated with Bergsonianism, history is the only explanation of our being, of our life, of the riddle of the universe. If we believe what we customarily profess that historical training is a most valuable part of the educated gentleman's mental equipment, then we must teach history. Both from the cultural and from the utilitarian standpoint, there can be no doubt among teachers of history about the value of their subject.

So we teach history. But in many instances what amazing history it is! Too frequently in a course in European history in high school or college, the teacher lays great and enduring foundations in the political, social, and religious life of the Roman Empire, and then adds a heavy, substantial story of dreary brown-stone facts quarried from the mediaeval church, the mediaeval empire, and the early national states, and ornamented possibly with quaint windows of the Renaissance and the Reformation, but does little more toward completing a beautiful and serviceable structure than here and there to run up into modern times an ugly girder or a mere scantling. Boys and girls who have had this kind of instruction are likely to show on examination for entrance to college that they possess a thorough knowledge of the attitude of Innocent III toward the Albigenses which is equalled in intensity only by their ignorance of the attitude of Leo XIII toward the social democrats.

It is not very much better in the case of American history. Course after course stops short with the Reconstruction of the South, just as if the great drama of European exploration and colonization and of the separation of the thirteen colonies from the mother country reached its climax in the Civil War! How else can we explain the woeful lack of knowledge about the marvellous growth of the United States within the last three decades?

This point has been well put by Professor Seeley, referring to the corresponding misteaching of the story of his own country. "The interest of English history ought to deepen steadily to the close, and, since the future grows out of the past, the history of the past of England ought to give rise to a prophecy concerning her future. Yet our popular historians scarcely seem to think so. Does not Aristotle say that a drama ends, but an epic poem only leaves off?

English history, as it is popularly related, not only has no distinct end, but leaves off in such a gradual manner, growing feebler and feebler, duller and duller, towards the close, that one might suppose that England, instead of steadily gaining in strength, had been for a century or two dying of mere old age. Can this be right? Ought the stream to be allowed thus to lose itself and evaporate in the midst of a sandy desert? . . ."

Throughout the wide fields of European and American history this strange occurrence is observable—rich streams pouring down from the middle ages, but growing ever smaller, and at length evaporating altogether in the course of the nineteenth century. In view of this phenomenon, it is not surprising that the average reader, in college as well as out of it, is liable to find that his darkest ages are since 1870, and that, too, despite the fact that he is a reader of newspapers and an occasional commentator upon current events. To overcome ignorance, if for no other reason, let us teach recent history.

That is not the sole value, however, that attaches to the teaching of recent history. Another real advantage will be inferred from a few lines which, if you will bear with me, I would quote further from Professor Seeley, "Here is no bad question for historical students at the opening of an academic year, the opening perhaps to some of their academic courses. You are asked to think over English history as a whole and consider if you cannot find some meaning, some method in it, if you cannot state some conclusion to which it leads. Hitherto, perhaps, you have learned names and dates, lists of kings, lists of battles and wars. The time comes now when you are to ask yourselves, to what end? For what practical purpose are these facts collected and committed to memory? If they lead to no great truths having at the same time scientific generality and momentous practical bearings, then history is but an amusement and will scarcely hold its own in the conflict of studies." That is the point, my friends. While we continue to teach ancient history and mediaeval history and early modern history—and remember at no time do I decry the study and teaching of those periods—it remains essential to teach recent history, for thereby only can there be a meaning and a lively interest in the students' minds for the history of the more distant past.

Do you stop to think that recent history, in bringing direct contact with to-day, concerns the future life-work of every collegian and high school student? Have you heard it said so often that the boys and girls in your class-rooms will soon be called upon to do the world's work, that you in any sense doubt it? You wrong your wards if you do. Do you reflect what a glorious name and fair mission is really yours—servants of the servants of this Republic? Even if you do not teach your pupils to entertain a great respect for the siege of Carthage, you can fill them with something akin to wonder by opening up their minds to the epoch-making character of the Spanish-

* J. R. Seeley, "The Expansion of England" (1909), p. 2.

American War or to the marvellous building of the Panama Canal. In the instruction of young persons there is such a thing as relativity. History will not be the less cultural by being the more utilitarian.

And now, of all times, a special consideration makes recent history imperative. Now that the Industrial Revolution has produced, within a hundred years, more changes in our daily life—in actual living, in working, in travelling—than are witnessed by the documented history of all preceding ages, history has infinitely increased its usefulness and its instructiveness. We are just beginning to appreciate the significance of the new social *milieu* created by the Industrial Revolution, and to understand that it is full of portents for the rising generation. It makes recent history the humanistic study *par excellence*.

My colleague, Professor Shotwell, referred to this matter in a paper which he read two years ago. "It is true," said he, "that this modern industrial history is not a topic hoary with age and filled with the romance of those

Old forgotten far-off things
And battles long ago.

But no epic ever recorded such triumphs, no tragedy such sufferings as these triumphs cost. The story of the women and children of England who bought her world empire at the loom and in the mine, of starving mobs of Paris who died fighting for \$1.50 a week in 1848, these are things which must go into our histories along with the growth of democracy and the spread of higher social ethics. If Dante were to come to life again to-day, these things, and not merely the diplomacy of Metternich or the intrigues of St. Petersburg, would be the theme of his Divine Comedy. And Herodotus, the father of us all, would be investigating how things like railroads could make possible a single nation on this continent. With such things, or their counterparts, did he busy himself in the old days when history was young. The fact that they are in the recent past is no argument either for or against them—certainly not against. For no one would have laughed more than this same Herodotus at the claim of those who say that one cannot write the history of one's own times and of the immediate past."⁵

Not only has the Industrial Revolution lately opened to us an important new field for historical labor, but it has supplied us with valuable tools for prosecuting our work. In older times "recent" history was handicapped by the isolation and consequent provincialism of every part of the world; the monk in his monastery might prepare a careful chronicle of ecclesiastical processions and earthquakes and floods and neighborhood conversions; the scribe of a royal council might epitomize the passing political transactions of his master's court; the reflective scholar might tell the tale of war or adventure which came to his ears in his own locality; but the horizon of all

these writers could be enlarged only so far and so fast as a stagecoach might drive or a ship might sail. Under these circumstances, the teaching of recent history might present grave difficulties, for how was an instructor in the University of Oxford to learn quickly in 1453 of the capture of Constantinople by the Musselmans, much less to chalk on an outline map the exact position of the various Turkish divisions and the precise place where fell fighting the last Emperor of Rome? But the Industrial Revolution has changed all this. Railroads and steamships and telegraphs and telephones and the daily press and numberless vast libraries have tied the furthestmost parts of the world close to the hithermost; stereographs and phonographs and kinematoscopes have miraculously enabled the New Yorker to see in his own school the mobilization of Bulgarian troops or the assembling of the Chinese parliament or the art treasures of the Vatican and the Louvre, and to hear speeches of the French president or of the prime minister of Great Britain. The world, more humanly interesting than ever, has shrunk into a globe so small that it may be handled by children.

These are the few suggestions which I have been minded to make as a plea for the propriety of studying, and the value of teaching, recent history; and I shall rest content if they serve to precipitate discussion and evoke criticism which, more successful than the mortar of the mediaeval alchemist, may possibly transmute my baser metal into fine gold.⁶

"The Southwestern Historical Quarterly" for April, contains an article by Herbert E. Bolton, of the University of California, on "Spanish Activities on the Lower Trinity River, 1746-1771." This paper is based wholly upon manuscript original sources. Professor Bolton shows in an interesting manner that "the activities of the Spanish government in Texas were from first to last inspired largely by fears of foreign aggression. When these fears slept, Texas was left pretty much to itself, so far as the government was concerned, but when serious rumors of encroaching strangers reached the official ears, there was likely to be vigorous proceedings for a time.

In dealing with the problems and forces which influenced the revolution of 1812 in Cuba, W. M. Kennedy states that the Catholic church through its loyalty to Spain during the struggle for independence lost all touch with the life of the people, and, consequently, its influence is purely traditional sentiment. The lack of moral control on the part of the church is made more serious by the fact that Cuban secondary education is a failure, and provides neither adequate intellectual training nor moral discipline. These defects in church and school have had a disastrous effect upon political life, making possible a luxuriant growth of the "graft system." In view of these facts and of the development of the race question, Mr. Kennedy does not see how Cuba can work out her own salvation, and feels that some time in the future she must become American. ("The Dublin Review," April).

⁵ J. T. Shotwell, "Social History and the Industrial Revolution," The Annual Convention of the Association of the Middle States and Maryland, 1911.

⁶ Address delivered before the Association of History Teachers of the Middle States and Maryland, at Syracuse, N. Y., April 18, 1913.

The Teaching of Greek History

III. THE SOURCES OF GREEK HISTORY

BY PROFESSOR W. L. WESTERMANN, UNIVERSITY OF WISCONSIN.

I. ADVANCE SINCE THE TIME OF GROTE.

It is a debatable question in what way and how far source-material can be successfully used in secondary schools in the limited time which an overcrowded curriculum offers for the study of history. There is no argument to be advanced against the statement that the teacher of history will be the better teacher the more complete is his acquaintance with the original sources of information in the field of his teaching. These are the real springs of inspiration. It is best to drink from them when one can. He who takes his spring water bottled is never sure that it has not come from the city water mains. Nor does he know how much its purity may have been polluted in bottling, if it be genuine. It is the purpose of this paper to set before the teachers of Greek history the nature of the original sources of our information and their present availability for high school work. The result is not flattering to those who have the knowledge to put the best of this material in shape for use in the hands of teachers and pupils.

When George Grote wrote his great "History of Greece" (1846-1856) the original evidence upon which he based his work was as follows: The historical and general literature of the Greeks and Romans, or the primary narrative evidence; the monuments of Greece; some state and private documents in the form of inscriptions upon stone; the coinage of the Greek States. The earlier collections of Greek inscriptions, compiled in the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries, were at Grote's disposal. August Boeckh, the German scholar, who was the real founder of our present methods and knowledge of Greek inscriptions (epigraphy), had published his first edition of the "Staatshaushaltung der Athener" in 1817. This book showed, once for all, the importance of the Greek inscriptional evidence for the economic and constitutional conditions of the Greek States. It also set a high and correct standard of procedure in the publication and interpretation of the inscriptions. The first two volumes of Boeckh's great project of compiling a corpus of Greek inscriptions had already appeared when Grote started his work.

Grote, therefore, was well this side the boundary line which separates the old treatment of Greek history, based almost exclusively on the literary evidence, from the new and modern era. Why, then, is Grote's work, despite his unquestioned powers as a political thinker and historian, already antiquated in its earlier part,¹ and inadequate, despite its fulness of detail, to give a comprehensive view of the rise and decline of ancient Greek political and cultural activity? The answer lies chiefly, though not entirely, in the vast amount of new evidence which has come to our ken through excavations made since Grote's day.

These excavations have increased, in greater or less degree, all the four sources of information mentioned above. They have added, in the Greek papyri, even now being found in Egypt, a new source upon the spirit and political life of the Greek-Egyptian kingdom of the Ptolemies. The papyri may be compared to a search-light which may be thrown far into a field that was quite dark. Down these lanes of light, which pierce the darkness only here and there, we may see the field as it is. And we may form a general idea, trustworthy for the greater part, of the landscape between our lanes of light where the darkness still lies unbroken. The new histories of Greece, and of Rome as well, are being written on the foundation of the new evidence combined with the old. Of these the greatest is Eduard Meyer's "Geschichte des Altertums." The progress of this magnificent example of stalwart German scholarship was stopped at the end of the fifth volume (about 360 B.C.) to enable the editor to rewrite his first volume upon the pre-Grecian history of the lands around the eastern end of the Mediterranean. A thorough revision of it was made necessary by the increase in material upon ancient Oriental history which the excavations of the years 1884-1908 had brought about.

II. THE RESULTS OF RECENT EXCAVATIONS.

Probably the world will never again experience such a vast increase in the number and variety of documents bearing upon the past history of man as has occurred in the nineteenth century. The sites of cities buried for over two thousand years have been brought to light. The people of Crete, who had built great palaces, conquered widely and ruled with a strong hand, had been forgotten, and their greatness had only survived in a few dim legends of the Greeks. The Hittites were known only as a race mentioned briefly in the Old Testament. Old languages, unspoken and unwritten for many more centuries than the oldest of us is old in years, have been deciphered. Dead and forgotten peoples speak to us again and tell their stories. The world has learned again the languages which it spoke in the childhood of its civilization.

When the student goes about the task of "digging out" his history he is unconsciously using a metaphor which applies absolutely to the men who have made the history of the ancient world what it is to-day. These are the excavators of the nineteenth and twentieth centuries; and the implements they have used are, in reality, the pick and the spade. All the lands about the Mediterranean, Central America and South America, too, have been, and are still, being opened up by the archaeologists who "dig out" history. And the sites of that gifted race of ancient Greeks have received their full share of attention.

The Greek excavations have given us material of a hundred different kinds: the foundations and walls of houses, temples, and public buildings; lamps; needles; hairpins; coins; statues in marble and bronze, large and small; offerings to the gods devoted by pious or thankful believers; vases painted with vivid scenes from daily life of the time; inscriptions of state decrees or letters of kings, which have the force of law; gems; paintings on walls; and many other things. The arid climate of Egypt has been a particular boon to those interested in ancient history. For it has preserved, in the scrap heaps and refuse piles of the Greek-Egyptian cities of the centuries after Alexander the Great, thousands of papers, official and private, most of which are written in Greek. This writing paper was made of the pith of the papyrus, a marsh-reed. The writing was done in ink with a reed pen. Think of the quality of an ink which might honestly have been advertised: "Guaranteed not to fade within 2,000 years."

In addition to the papyri the excavator has furnished us with a few wooden tablets, in form like small slates. On some of these the writing consists of incisions made with the stylus upon a wax covering. On others the writing is done with ink. In Egypt "ostraka," or broken bits of pottery, were extensively used as a writing material, usually for tax receipts written in ink. Those were flung into jars and kept there, as we file our receipts, for reference. The frequent complaints which we meet in the papyri of attempts on the part of the tax-collectors to repeat the operation of enforcing taxes in a single year, explain why so many ostraka are found.

III. THE LITERARY EVIDENCE.

If Grote were to begin a new history of Greece now, he would find that only a few books or fragments of books had been added to the literary or narrative evidence which he had before him in 1846. The most important is a copy of Aristotle's "Athenian Constitution," a papyrus of four rolls discovered in Egypt and bought by the British Museum in 1891. It is available in a translation by Kenyon, published in 1901.¹ In addition to that we have some poems of Bacchylides, a dithyrambic poet of the fifth century B.C.; several new lyrics of Sappho, and a fragment consisting of about twenty-one columns of an ancient Greek history, which is generally regarded as belonging to the "Hellenica" of Theopompus, an historian of the fourth century B.C.² Important as was the addition of Aristotle's study to our knowledge of Athenian constitutional history, it throws light only upon one limited phase of the wide reach of Greek history. The fragmentary papyrus of the new historian, Theopompus or Cratippus,³ deals in detail

with events connected with the Corinthian War in the years 396-395 B.C. Its most important contribution to our knowledge comes through the discussion of the Boeotian League and its organization. This chapter proves that the Boeotian League was based upon a system of representation, proportional to the population of the eleven units of the league. But, at best, the detailed information contained in these fragments covers only two years of Greek history.

Almost all of the ancient Greek literary sources are available in English translation. These will always be the framework around which we shall build our interpretations of the Greek spirit and its meaning. Many of these sources are rated among the greatest literary heritages of all time. So the reading of them is by no means a task—indeed, it should be a joy to the teacher or pupil whose literary taste is not too strongly diluted by much reading of our weekly and monthly magazines.

Of these writers the most useful for secondary schools is Plutarch. Think of the information stored in the following lives, not to speak of the delight: Theseus, Lycurgus, Solon, Themistocles, Aristides, Cimon, Pericles, Nicias, Alcibiades, Lysander, Artaxerxes, Agesilaus, Pelopidas, Dion, Timoleon, Alexander, Demosthenes, Phocion, Eumenes, Demetrius, Pyrrhus, Aratus, Philopoemen, Cleomenes, Agis. The list covers the whole range of Greek history, a wealth of material, unsurpassed as reading for boys and girls. The standard translation is still the Dryden-Clough.⁴ Professor Perrin, of Yale University, is now in the midst of the task of translating twelve of the lives for the Loeb Classical Library.⁵ The six lives which have thus far appeared in his translation are excellent. The price, only, of the Dryden-Clough gives it the preference for school libraries.

The Homeric poems should be in every school library. They should be read for themselves, and may be used as a mine for simple topics, if the teacher follows this method of work. Probably the nearest approach to the Greek flavor is to be had in the Lang-Leaf-Myer translation of the "Iliad," and the Butcher and Lang or the Palmer translation of the "Odyssey." The first two books of the "Iliad" and the first four of the "Odyssey" offer, perhaps, the best material for topical studies. But the student who will forget the task of looking up Homeric government and lose himself in the ring of sword on helmet and shield, or breathlessly watch the ichor flow—he will get the most out of it.

Aristotle's "Athenian Constitution" is, in my judgment, hard going for the high school student, except, perhaps, as one may use extracts from the source

¹ F. G. Kenyon, "Aristotle on the Athenian Constitution," London, Bell & Sons, 1901.

² The view that the fragment is from Theopompus has in its support the authority of Eduard Meyer and Wilamowitz. Others conclude that the writer is Cratippus, an Athenian historian of the fourth century.

³ This papyrus was found in 1906 and published in 1908 by Grenfell and Hunt in vol. V of the *Oxyrynchus Papyri*.

⁴ This may be obtained in three volumes in the Everyman's Library, E. P. Dutton, New York, for 35 cents per volume.

⁵ The announcement of the Loeb Classical Library (Macmillan Catalogue for 1913-1914) shows that the work is advancing rapidly. The editors have been able to adopt a number of the standard translations of Greek and Latin writers. In this library we will soon have a place to turn for a trustworthy English rendering of any classical writer.

books. The teacher, however, should know whereof it treats. Herodotus' account of the Persian Wars is easy and delightful reading. It is to be had in either of two standard translations, that of Rawlinson or that of Macaulay. For Thucydides the standard translation is still that of Jowett. In using Thucydides it must be remembered that it is the great literary and historic skill of Thucydides which has kept the Peloponnesian War so prominently before us in Greek history. Much of his account is useless for secondary schools. The long speeches are wonderful summaries of the political situation and of the arguments which may have been used by the diplomats and ambassadors who urged war or peace in the assemblies of the time. But these again are too difficult reading for the ordinary boy, and the reasoning too close. The funeral oration spoken by Pericles (Book II) should be in the source-books, as a magnificent piece of political oratory. The descriptions in the account of the Syracusan expedition and its pitiful end are great pieces of narrative writing (Books VI and VII); and the results of the expedition were important enough in their political significance to deserve some illustrative source reading. The statement of John Bagnell Bury is a true one, that one may learn what history is by reading Thucydides and Grote. Yet much of Thucydides is not adapted to use as source-material in secondary schools.

For Xenophon the standard translation is that of Dakyns.⁶ The "Hellenica" is our basic source for the years 411-362 B.C. A detailed acquaintance with the intricate political changes of this period is scarcely to be hoped for in secondary schools. The correct illustrative material is easily chosen for source-books. It is that which deals with the important events at the end of the Peloponnesian War, the Peace of Antalcidas ("Hellenica," V, 1, 31) and the breaking of the Spartan hegemony. The Peace of Antalcidas, along with the expedition of Cyrus and that of Agesilaus, in the teaching of Greek history should be connected with the eastern foreign policy of the Greek States. These events stand midway between Persia's offensive westward movement, i. e., its policy of territorial and commercial expansion westward, and the eastward expansion or colonization movement of the Greeks under Alexander the Great and his immediate successors. Xenophon's "Memorabilia," or "Conversations of Socrates," are a mine of interesting information for Greek social life, and for the big and inspiring personality of Socrates himself. He was a bizarre figure even to the men of the Athenian streets. "He is exactly like the masks of Silenus, which may be seen in the statuaries shops, having pipes and flutes in their mouths; and they are made to open in the middle, and there are images of gods inside them." Thus Alcibiades, in Plato's "Symposium," is made to describe this "satyr," the music of whose words stirred the souls of men. We are not

likely to exaggerate, in our teaching, the power and influence of Socrates upon the spirit and direction of Greek thought.⁷ The source-books available for high school work have not taken advantage of the first-hand and first-class material in the "Memorabilia" upon the small trades and the general social and economic life of Athens.

The orators are, of course, excellent sources upon the fourth century B.C. In my judgment, however, it is doubtful whether they can be used to a great extent in secondary schools. The reasons for this are three. First, the amount of detailed and accurate information necessary to a successful understanding of their arguments in a given case is great, quite beyond the scope of a boy or girl of high school age. Second, the determination of the party bias of the orator upon any question is difficult in itself and would demand lengthy and thorough explanation. Third, nothing loses so bitterly in translation as the word that was written to sound from the political or forensic platform. Especially is this true of Demosthenes. Where shall we find or how reproduce the poise and sweep of his diction, the ease and harmony of movement? Surely, in no translation. The paper oratory of Isocrates loses much less in translation. Moreover, it is in Isocrates that one finds those stray, but important, hints of the economic causes of Alexander's invasion of Persia and the growth of Greek public opinion which made it possible.⁸ This has been neglected in the source-books at our disposal. The corollary to this, the hints of the decline of Greek commercial supremacy in the West, is to be found in the letters ascribed to Plato.

About the figure of Alexander there clings still something of the radiance of the legendary heroes of one's youth. Even the blasé professional historian readily slips back into this attitude. And so Alexander's life, even in the clear midday light of historical facts, is always enveloped with something of the glow and charm of the adventurer and the fighter. His work, too, was of vital importance. For he stands at one of those Cilician gates of history, which give entrance into new lands with new problems. What an opportunity, then, for a teacher of history! Luckily we have interesting sources for Alexander. I know of no recent translation of Quintus Curtius Rufus, and have found the centenarian versions hard to obtain. Plutarch's "Life of Alexander" we all know. Arrian's "Anabasis of Alexander" we have in a good translation in the Bohn Library.⁹

For the Hellenistic period we have Plutarch and Polybius to furnish a narrow fundament for an im-

⁶ H. G. Dakyns: "The Works of Xenophon," Macmillan, 5 vols. The translation in the Bohn Classical series (Dutton) is much cheaper.

⁷ F. M. Fling, in his "Source Book of Greek History" (Heath & Co., 1909) has rightly devoted a chapter to the character of Socrates, based chiefly upon the "Memorabilia" of Xenophon. W. S. Davis, in his "Readings in Ancient History" (Allyn & Bacon, 1912), has done the same. But his sources are Diogenes Laertius and Plato. Each of these sources is inferior, for quite different reasons, to Xenophon's "Memorabilia" for the purpose in hand.

⁸ See Westermann, *Story of the Ancient Nations*, p. 203.

⁹ E. J. Chinnock, Arrian's "Anabasis of Alexander and Indica," Bohn Classical Library, Dutton and Co.

mense superstructure. Polybius may be read in the good translation by Schuckburgh.¹⁰ It is here that we obtain our most valuable information upon the Eastern imperialistic policy and expansion of Rome, the political decline of the Greek city-states, and the Achaean and Aetolian Leagues. Appian's "Foreign Wars"¹¹ and the history of Livy help us out with information put together from the Western point of view.

The remaining narrative sources upon Hellenistic political and economic life are widely scattered. Strabo's "Geography," Athenaeus in his "Deipnosophisto" ("Banquet of the Philosophers"), Pausanias in his "Tour of Greece," Diodorus of Sicily in his "Universal History," and other writers, give us snatches here and there which must be pieced together. W. S. Davis in his "Readings in Ancient History" has done us the service of making bits of this material available. But his extracts do little more than give us a tantalizing taste quite inadequate to the importance of the period. There is a wealth of material in the "Natural History" of Pliny the Elder, especially upon the scientific and general culture of the Hellenistic world. The Bohn translation of this work seems to be out of print. There is a translation by J. S. White, "Pliny for Boys and Girls; Natural History," published by Putnam, which is undoubtedly expurgated for secondary use.¹²

IV. THE CLASSICAL LITERATURE OF GREECE.

When possible, the presence of the standard translations of the Greek classic writers other than historians should be on the shelves to tempt the unwary student into reading a "classic" before he may be aware of that fact and incontinently run away. Of the trio of great dramatists, there are many and good translations. The choice among them is so subjective that the writer can only enumerate a few without indicating a personal preference:

- Aeschylus: Robert Potter, Dutton.
E. H. Plumptre, Heath.
Anna Swanwick, Macmillan.
Lewis Campbell, Oxford University Press.
George Warr, Longmans, Green & Co. (illustrated, but contains the *Oresteia* alone).
- Sophocles: Richard C. Jebb, Putnam.
J. S. Phillimore, Longmans, N. Y. (contains only the "Oedipus King," "Oedipus at Colonus," and the "Antigone").
E. H. Plumptre, Heath.
F. Storr, Macmillan, N. Y., 2 vols. (Loeb Classical Library).
Robert Whitelaw, Longmans, N. Y.

¹⁰ E. S. Schuckburgh, "Polybius," Macmillan.

¹¹ Horace White, "Appian's Roman History," vol. I, Macmillan. This translation has been adopted for the new Loeb Classical Library.

¹² Unfortunately I have not seen this translation.

Euripides: Gilbert Murray, Longmans, N. Y.¹³
A. S. Way, Macmillan (adopted in the Loeb Classical Library, and undoubtedly the most popular version).

Goldwin Smith's "Specimens of Greek Tragedy" (Macmillan, 2 vols.) give in a good translation the plots of the most prominent plays of the three tragedians, omitting most of the choruses. This is a good introduction to put before younger students.

Aristophanes:¹⁴ J. H. Frere, Morley's Library (containing the "Acharnians," "Knights and Birds").

W. J. Hickie, Bohn Library, Macmillan (unfortunately too literal—and Aristophanes was wont to be literal in his jokes).

B. B. Rogers, Macmillan.

(Greek text, with translation).

The most highly honored translation of Plato's dialogues is that of Benjamin Jowett (Scribner, 4 vols.). Few secondary schools will be able to afford these volumes. Furthermore, only a small part of the dialogues is suitable, despite their beauty and importance, for younger students. An admirable selection of the earlier and simpler works will be found in a translation by F. J. Church, "The Trial and Death of Socrates" (Macmillan). It includes the "Euthyphron," "Apology," "Crito" and "Phaedo," all within the mental scope of the secondary pupil.¹⁵ Perhaps the most useful single volume to give one a breath of that unchanging charm of Greek literature is the manual of Greek literature, edited by Edward Copps.¹⁶ The text is plentifully supplied with extracts chosen from the best translations.

V. THE MONUMENTAL EVIDENCE.

The nineteenth century, more strictly the later half, marks the beginning of the modern scientific methods of archaeological research. Again Grote stands in a favorable position, over the threshold within the door that leads into our present treatment. Immense popular interest in Greek antiquities had been aroused by the purchase and removal from Athens of the famous "Elgin marbles" by Lord Elgin, when he was British ambassador to Turkey in the years 1799-1803. This interest found further expression in the establishment of the German Archaeological Institute in Rome in 1828, and the development of the departments of classical antiquities in the great museums of the European capitals. Since that time the remains of works of ancient art have had a high market value, and the loss of marble sculptures in the lime-kilns of ignorant Turkish peasants has not been great.

¹³ Separate volumes of Murray's translations of the "Medea," "Electra," "Iphigenia in Tauris," "Hippolytus," "Bacchae," "Trojan Women" and "Medea," neatly bound, may be obtained from Longmans.

¹⁴ The question of having Aristophanes at all, excepting in diluted extracts, I leave to the teacher's discretion.

¹⁵ Jowett's translation of the "Apology," "Crito" and a part of the "Phaedo" may be had in a small volume, called "Socrates" (Scribner or Century Co.)

¹⁶ E. Copps, "From Homer to Theocritus," Scribner, 1901.

The strictly modern era of archaeological excavations and research began with the work at the tomb of King Mausoleus of Caria, conducted in 1857 by Charles Newton, an official of the British Museum. These were followed, in 1871 and 1874, by the astonishing, though scientifically incomplete, work of Schliemann at Troy and Mycenae. In 1875 the excavations of the German Archaeological Institute began on the site of the ancient sacred precinct of Olympia. Here the systematic methods of present-day archaeology were established. Since that time the activity in excavating Greek sites has been great and the results of immense historical importance. The archaeological societies of Germany, United States, Great Britain, France, and Austria have established schools for classical studies at Athens. From these the annual campaigns of excavation are directed. In this activity the United States has had an honorable part through its American School of Classical Studies. The sites of the principal American excavations have been Assos in Asia Minor, the Heraeum of Argos, Corinth, Sicyon, and, more recently, Mochlos in Crete.

Since the important finds are not permitted to go out of Greece or Turkey, one of the obligations upon the field archaeologists is that of publication of their results for scientific use. This obligation has given rise to many archaeological journals,¹⁷ which give the results of the work with scientific accuracy and detail, wherever possible with good illustrations. In the case of excavations conducted upon a large scale the material is published in special volumes, with extensive illustrations, plans, and restorations of important buildings. Excellent examples of this are the five immense volumes upon Olympia by Curtius and Adler, and that upon Pergamum by Maxime Collignon. For secondary work the most useful portions of these books would be the views of those monuments which are well preserved, or, better still, the restorations. These are, of course, absolutely trustworthy when derived from such a source.

Unfortunately these volumes are very costly. There is a great need for more books like Professor D'Ooge's "Acropolis of Athens." I see no reason why this need should not be met by secondary teachers in some of our larger cities who have the material at hand in large libraries and museums. The information upon Greek social life obtained from the paintings on Greek vases and other similar sources has already taken form suitable for secondary pupils. Among the best books which present some portion of this monumental evidence in good form are: Tucker, "Life in Ancient Athens" (Macmillan); Gulick, "Life of the Ancient Greeks" (Appleton); Blümner, "The Home Life of the Ancient Greeks" (Cassell); Schreiber, "Atlas of Classical Antiquities" (Macmillan). In Gardiner's "Greek Athletic Sports and Festivals" (Macmillan), we have a subject which is quite certain to interest boys, although the treatment is scientific rather than popular. Cybul-

ski's charts for the illustration of Greek and Roman antiquities¹⁸ can be used with excellent results in class room. Twenty of these have already appeared, charts 33 by 25 inches, illustrating in colors all phases of Greek and Roman life, such as the dress, military camps, and houses. The writer considers them much more effective than the same illustrations given in stereopticon lectures, for the simple pedagogical reason that the student himself can be made to do the work with interest. Another excellent means of visualizing Greek topography and the ruins still extant is available in the Underwood Stereoscopic Tours.¹⁹ With the Cybulski charts and the Underwood views at her disposal, an ingenious teacher may institute laboratory work in history of a most attractive and effective kind. The Perry Pictures have been used successfully by many teachers as illustrative material upon Greek art.

VI. EPIGRAPHICAL EVIDENCE.

The spade of the field archaeologist or excavator has furnished us also the thousands of inscriptions which have been found, restored, and published since the days of Grote. It is from this source that the greatest advance in our knowledge has come. Once the authenticity of an inscription on stone has been determined, we have an original, contemporaneous document upon some one of the many phases of Greek political or social life. The inscription may be from a grave monument, giving the name of the dead person and perhaps an epigram in his honor. It may be a decree of the Athenian Council and Assembly or of the same legislative bodies in some other city-state. Of these we have scores. The letters were incised in stone by stone-masons and then painted, customarily in red or black paint, so as to be readable from a distance. Many of these, though by no means all, were set up in public places, such as temple precincts or public buildings. In only a few cases have traces of the paint survived the weathering and wear of the centuries. The marble slabs set up were called *stelai* by the Greeks. In many cases, especially in the period after Alexander, the walls of temples were used for long and important decrees of the Hellenistic kings.

August Boeckh, in the first half of the nineteenth century, was the first scholar who fully realized the importance of the inscriptions as documents supplementing the evidence furnished by the ancient authors. By this new material the chronological basis of Greek history is much more firmly established than in Grote's day.²⁰ The knowledge of Greek in-

¹⁸ Cybulski, "Tabulae, quibus antiquitates Graecae et Romanae illustrantur," Koehler, Leipzig.

¹⁹ Underwood and Underwood, New York, "Stereoscopic Tour of Greece," prepared by Rufus B. Richardson (formerly Director of the American School at Athens). The "Tour of Greece," containing 100 views, costs \$19.95.

²⁰ The investigations of W. S. Ferguson, now of Harvard University, have been very valuable in this regard. In his doctoral dissertation (Cornell) upon the Athenian Archons of the third and second centuries B. C., Professor Ferguson established a new method, discovered in the Attic inscriptions, of dating the annual Archons of Athens.

¹⁷ The results of the work of the American School at Athens are customarily published in the "American Journal of Archaeology."

stitutional history has been greatly advanced. On every side new interpretations of Greek life have forced themselves upon us. It is true that the information is sadly fragmentary. The impression given is that of an ancient mosaic, discovered in scattered pieces. After the most careful scrutiny one stone must be set here, one there. But in the end we obtain an accurate reconstruction of the original picture.

The process of editing inscriptions is exceedingly painstaking and demands a highly specialized workmanship and knowledge. The stones are usually "weathered," i. e., the lettering in many places is washed out or broken away. The *stele* may be broken at the top or bottom or along one side. The effort must be made to restore the missing parts, with the language and style of similar inscriptions and the content of the readable portions as guides. The inscriptions, restored when restoration is feasible, are published in scientific journals, German, English, French, Greek, Italian, or Dutch, as the case may be, and gathered from these sources into the *Corpus of Greek Inscriptions*, cited as I. G. (*Inscriptiones Graecae*). This great project is financed and carried out by the Prussian Academy of Sciences. A selection of the most important historical inscriptions has been made by Dittenberger in his "*Sylloge Inscriptionum Graecarum*" and his "*Orientis Graeci Inscriptiones*." For those teachers who can read the documents in Greek and the Latin commentary, unfortunately a very small group, these volumes would be an almost unlimited source of information. There are two books of important selections with English commentary, but without translations, the "Greek Historical Inscriptions" of Hicks and Hill (Clarendon Press, 1901), and Roberts and Gardner, "Introduction to Greek Epigraphy," part 2 (Cambridge University Press, 1905). The latter is confined in its scope to the Attic inscriptions. The immaturity of our knowledge and teaching of ancient history in the United States is nowhere more clearly expressed than by the fact that our source-books have so far entirely failed to give space to the translation of important inscriptions. The lack of new source-books, with a reconstruction of the entire emphasis and a new choice of selections, is in my judgment the most imperative need for the advancement of this branch of history in our schools to-day.

The inscriptional material is admirably fitted to give in brief form the best possible training in historical observation and deduction. The writer has been using his own translations for a succession of years in university classes with good results; and the material, if rightly presented, is in no way too difficult for secondary school use.

VII. THE PAPYRI.

Our two sources for papyri have been the ruins of Herculaneum and the sites of the ancient Greek cities of Egypt. But the papyrus rolls from Herculaneum have been entirely literary texts, and so of minor importance historically, as compared with the finds in Egypt. Probably as far back as the time of the

Ptolemies the patient fellaheen of Egypt have enriched their fields from the refuse-heaps of ancient and forgotten cities. In these garbage and refuse mounds old papers were thrown away. Since the eighteenth century a few of these ancient papers have found their way into the hands of antiquarians and have been placed in the museums of Europe. It is only since 1895, however, that systematic excavations have been made for the papyri in the ruins of ancient houses. They are found sometimes in refuse heaps, sometimes glued about the mummified bodies of human beings or of cats, dogs, crocodiles, or other animals. The best finds are complete rolls preserved in jars. In 1889 Flinders-Petrie made the discovery that the Greek-Egyptian pasteboard coffins were made of many layers of these old written documents, pasted and pressed together. Again the methods of saving and publishing our ancient documents require the greatest care. If they are glued together, the glue must be chemically dissolved and the papyri separated without destroying the script. Then follows the difficult task of restoring the parts of the papyrus which have been torn away or are in shreds. The reading and publishing of the text is the work of a specialist with years of training. Similarity of handwriting occurs in only a few papyri of the many thousands which are now in the libraries and museums of England, France, Germany, and Italy, or in the Museum at Cairo.²¹ Each hand is individual. Add the difficulties occasioned by the many abbreviations, by bad Greek, by the use of shorthand, by the fact that the ancients did not separate words when they wrote, by the torn and mutilated condition of the papyri themselves,—and one may judge of the patience and skill required in the Greek "palaeography."

The best and most successful excavations for papyri have been made by the Englishmen, Grenfell and Hunt. Near the Faiyum, which is particularly dry, at a small town called Oxyrynchus, they made their greatest finds. Of the estimated thirty volumes of Oxyrynchus Papyri,²² nine have already been published, with introduction, Greek text, translation, and notes upon each papyrus. In addition to these there are several other volumes of papyri published with English translation; but many of the papyri are published in Germany, France, England, Italy, without translation. The standard selection of the papyri which are historically most valuable is the Mitteis-Wilcken "Papyrskunde," in four volumes (Teubner, Leipzig), two devoted to the Greek texts and two to the interpretation and summary of the new evidence. Again we lack a book which furnishes us with any

²¹ In the last years before his death, Mr. J. Pierpont Morgan became interested in collecting papyri. These are now stored in his New York library. The few which have historical value have already been published in the volumes of the "Amherst Papyri."

²² This estimate was made by Mr. Grenfell shortly before the beginning of the sad illness which has so unfortunately put an end to his scholarly activity. The Oxyrynchus, Tebtunis, Hibeh, and Faiyum Papyri are published by the Egypt Exploration Fund, London. These all give accurate translations of the texts.

sufficient quantity of this great body of new documents out of the official and daily life of Egypt in the period of the Ptolemies.²³ Often we hear tones which sound from the very hearts of men whose hearts have been dust for 2,000 years. In the Flinders-Petrie papyri, for example, there is a group of mutilated letters out of the correspondence of a Greek official in the Arsinoite nome of Egypt in the years 258-252 B.C. His name was Cleon, and his position was about that of an Overseer of Public Works in the Arsinoite nome. That he was an important official is shown by the fact that he and his son personally met King Ptolemy Philadelphus. His duties included the building and inspection of canals, dykes and other public works. Because of some imagined or actual delinquency, he fell out of grace with Philadelphus and aroused the royal ire. When Cleon was in disgrace and despair his son Philonides, evidently a mature man, wrote to him in a letter, mutilated at the beginning: ". . . for this you will find the King propitious also for the future. Surely nothing will be of more moment to me than to stand by you throughout the remainder of your life in a manner worthy of you and worthy of me, and, in so far as it is humanly possible, to see that you meet with all good fortune. This will be my greatest care, to stand by you well, both during your lifetime and when you shall have gone to the gods. Above all, therefore, make all haste to resign your office forever. If you do not regard this as possible, at least when the river has fallen and there is no danger and it will be possible to leave Theodoros in charge, for this season, at least, see to it that you come to visit us. And keep this in mind, that nothing grievous may happen to you, but that I shall take every care that you may be free from sorrow. Farewell."²⁴ Fathers and sons—they were quite like us of to-day!

VIII. THE COINS.

The coins found in the fields of Greece and in the excavations of ancient cities have, also, their great value for the Greek historian. There are many thousands of these on exhibition in the great museums of the world. Even in the minting of coins the aesthetic sense of the Greeks expressed itself admirably. The coins of Syracuse, for example, are among the most beautiful that we know. The interest and assistance which the coins give in reestablishing the history of cultured man, is extremely wide and varied. They have preserved for us accurate miniature pictures of lost masterpieces of sculpture. They often give us trustworthy likenesses of rulers. They tell us of influences of one state upon another, of political alliances, of the religious cults and practices of the different city-states.

²³ For brief examples of the character of the Papyri and a short explanation of their importance see the "Outlook," vol. 89, pp. 566-71, which is a popular article by P. E. J. Goodspeed of Chicago University. Professor Goodspeed's reputation as a scientific worker in the publishing of papyri is international.

²⁴ Translated from Witkowski, "Epistulae privatae graecae," No. 8.

Most especially the coins help the historian in his difficult attempt to reconstruct the economic history of the ancient Greek world. They often present interesting evidence of the chief industries of the cities. The fish upon the coins of Chalcedon, the silphium plant on the coins of Cyrene, the bull upon those of Thurii, indicate the chief source of the city's wealth in each case. Seven hundred and sixty staters and drachmas coined upon the standard of Aegina, 541 of these stamped with the Aeginetan tortoise, were found upon the island of Thera. The coins found upon the island of Melos tell a similar story. Upon points of style these coins can be dated with a fair degree of accuracy. So the conclusion is certain that in the seventh and sixth centuries B.C., Aegina was the foremost commercial state of the Greek world. Hints in Herodotus indicate further that the Aeginetan sphere of trade stretched from Egypt well into the Pontus.²⁵ These examples might be indefinitely multiplied. But there is no need, since our text-books already use Greek coins extensively as illustrative material. The two best books for general use upon Greek coinage are Hill's "Handbook of Greek and Roman Coins" (Macmillan) and the "Historical Greek Coins" (Macmillan) of the same author.

WHAT IS CARNEGIE NOTED FOR?

Answers from papers submitted by pupils in a recent New York Regents' examination in Elementary U. S. history.

He invented: wireless telegraphy, carriages, reaper, sleeping car, steam laundry, Atlantic cable, bicycle, medicine, railroad, wagons, typewriter, printing press, screwdriver, steam propeller, electric light, threshing machine, wheel-rake, harrow, airship, electric car, levees along Mississippi River.

He was: a general in the Spanish-American war, a British spy, Secretary of War, governor, an orator, president of the Northern Pacific R. R., first man to sail to China with ship and crew.

He found that steam had power, discovered an anaesthetic, started for Europe to get help for the South, became wealthy by manufacturing glass, urged Congress to annex Hawaii, and wrote a book.

He is: the best after dinner speaker in America, a phylonsiphith, a phynopsis, a thanatopsis, the head of the weather bureau, an auto speeder, a steel magnet, the head of the steel trust, and trains wild animals.

WHAT IS A BUDGET?

Budget is a small vessel sailing generally along the coast or across the channel for purpose of trading.

A revenue on liquors.

One who takes charge of the taxes.

A lump of gold found in the ground in a solid mass.

The surplus money in the treasury.

The application or demand of reformation.

A kind of cabinet which comprises the prime minister and his councillors.

That with which a nation pays its debts.

A small dependant town.

²⁵ Busolt, Griechische Geschichte, vol. I, p. 451.

College Entrance Examination Board's Questions and the Ratings of Candidates

An impartial objective test of the efficiency of our high school and preparatory school teaching is to be found in the records of the College Entrance Examination Board. Copious extracts from Dr. Fiske's thirteenth report will be found on another page of this issue, together with comment upon the examinations by Professor Edgar Dawson and quotations from statements by Professor Herbert D. Foster, chief examiner in history, and by Professor E. D. Fite, chief reader in history. No excuse should be necessary for the printing of this material and the accompanying tables of figures; they deserve the careful study of every person interested in the teaching of history, whether in school or college.

The figures are a severe indictment of present-day standards in history teaching, and they will give additional ammunition to the persons who would sacrifice history in order to gain time either for the studies possessing greater disciplinary value, or for those which will impart knowledge of immediate practical value. From both of these sides the place of history in the secondary school curriculum is being attacked, and its friends can find little satisfaction from the last report of the board, unless it be that satisfaction which comes from a realization of the need of deep-seated reform.

History compares unfavorably with all the other subjects given in the board's examinations. Thus for 1913, of the 1,862 candidates taking examinations in history, only 38.1 per cent. received a rating of 60 or over; while the average for all subjects shows 54.8 per cent. receiving such a rating. Further, the record for history is lower than that for any other subject, the nearest being botany, with 41.7 per cent. receiving ratings from 60 to 100. Five other subjects than history had over one thousand candidates taking the examinations, with the following percentages receiving a rating of 60 or more: English, 48.3; Latin, 51.4; Greek, 73.4; French, 60.5; German, 57.1, and Mathematics, 60.7. History thus falls far below even the lowest of these major subjects.

The examinations give slight cause for gratification when the history records are viewed through a series of years. In 1902, 59.2 per cent. of the history candidates received a rating of 60 or over. For the next eight years there is a progressive decline in the percentage, until in 1909, only 39.6 received the rating of 60 or more. This decline was not peculiar to history, but was shared by nearly all other subjects offered by the board during these years. From 1909, however, there has been a gradual increase in the number of candidates in all subjects obtaining over 60, until in 1913 the percentage stands at 54.8. History has not experienced any such advance and in the current year stands lower than it did in 1909. Relatively in comparison with other subjects, and,

absolutely, compared with its own record, history teaching shows no advance, but actually a slight decline during these four years.

Many attempts have been made to explain the low ratings in history. Professor Dawson elsewhere discusses some of these. The most common remark has been that candidates try the history examinations after a process of cramming, or at the close of a short review course and without regular instruction in the subject. According to such statements, it is the irregularly prepared student who brings down the average in the examinations. The fault lies not with the history teacher, but with the over-ambitious youth who takes a try at a history examination when he would never attempt any other subject on similar preparation. Unfortunately the tables prepared by Dr. Fiske and Professor Fite do not bear out this contention. If the fault lies with the irresponsible candidates then history should make a much better showing if these persons were cut out. Dr. Fiske gives a table showing the grades obtained by candidates who had been recommended by their teachers or schools "on the ground of full and satisfactory preparation." Naturally the proportion of these candidates receiving the higher ratings in all subjects is greater than for all candidates; but the peculiar feature of the table is that the elimination of the supposedly ill-prepared history students, and the inclusion of recommended ones alone, does not change materially the position of history with reference to other subjects. It is true that 42.5 per cent. of the recommended candidates in history obtained ratings of 60 or over; but the increase from 38.1 to 42.5, showing the superiority of the recommended over the unrecommended candidates, is exceeded by every other major subject in the list.¹ In other words, there is not as much difference between all candidates in history and recommended candidates in history, as there is between all candidates in any other major subject, and recommended candidates in that subject. The natural inference from these figures is that the standard of recommendation, and consequently the standard of teaching in history is lower than in any subject in the board's list except music and botany. The tables show that the responsible parties are the history teachers and school administrators who recommend history students that are not prepared as well as students in other subjects. Professor Dawson, too, has shown that neither the standards of the examiners nor the markings of the readers are too high. From all aspects of the subject we come back to those engaged in teaching history.

¹Indeed, exceeded by every subject except music and botany, in which the small numbers of candidates forbid generalizations, and, curiously, the recommended candidates in each made lower ratings than all candidates in each.

The casual reader of Dr. Fiske's last report cannot fail to note the ten pages devoted to the new requirements in chemistry; he will see with what care the new requirements were framed; with what great detail the new unit in chemistry is defined; and how specific are made the laboratory experiments to be used. The history teacher who reads these pages will pray that some commission will some day delimit his own work; that colleges and examination boards will not be content with describing the requirement in history in a single sentence or short paragraph, while English, Latin, chemistry, physics, and other subjects are each given several pages; and that some day he will be given the opportunity of studying and teaching in interesting detail a few important epochs or movements of his chosen period of history. With such an opportunity to devote his best endeavors to a chosen group of topics, it will be easy for him to use the best of text-books, to develop library and reference work, to adopt the best illustrative material, and to train his pupils in the rudiments of historical criticism and historical judgment. Only in this way can history be made something more than a cram study, and be made to give other mental discipline than the training of memory alone.

What organization can point the way to such an advance?

Examination Statistics for 1913

The following tables are condensed from the Thirteenth Annual Report of Dr. Thomas S. Fiske, secretary of the College Entrance Examination Board.

NUMBER OF ALL CANDIDATES AND PERCENTAGES
ATTAINING CERTAIN GRADES.

	Number of Candidates	Ratings 90-100 %	Ratings 75-89 %	Ratings 60-74 %	Ratings 50-59 %	Ratings 40-49 %	Ra- tings 30-39 %	Ratings 20-29 %	Ratings 10-19 %	Ratings 0-9 %
English.....	3200	0.6	12.5	35.2	18.5	17.7	15.5	48.3	66.8	84.4
History										
A. Ancient	782	1.5	13.0	33.9	17.3	13.9	20.3	48.5	65.7	79.7
B. Med. and Mod.	64	0.0	4.7	21.9	26.6	12.5	34.4	26.6	53.1	65.6
C. English	389	0.3	5.9	26.5	20.3	16.2	30.8	32.6	53.0	69.1
D. American	627	0.2	5.1	24.6	18.2	22.6	29.3	29.8	48.0	70.7
	1862	0.8	8.6	28.8	18.5	17.3	26.0	38.1	56.7	73.9
Latin.....	5271	1.7	18.6	31.0	15.0	11.7	21.9	51.4	60.4	78.1
Greek.....	644	5.0	33.1	35.4	10.4	6.2	9.9	73.4	83.9	90.1
French.....	2085	3.1	21.0	36.3	17.8	10.9	10.8	60.5	78.3	89.2
German.....	1798	2.8	19.5	34.8	14.5	11.1	17.2	57.1	71.6	82.8
Spanish.....	21	28.6	38.1	9.5	9.5	9.5	4.8	76.2	85.7	95.2
Mathematics.....	6640	17.0	20.6	23.1	10.1	9.8	19.5	60.7	70.8	80.5
Physics.....	744	7.5	21.2	29.7	9.9	9.0	22.6	58.5	68.4	77.4
Chemistry.....	482	6.4	18.0	29.9	16.6	11.8	17.2	54.4	71.0	82.8
Botany.....	24	4.2	0.0	37.5	4.2	12.5	41.7	41.7	45.8	58.3
Geography.....	45	2.2	11.1	35.6	24.4	8.9	17.8	48.9	73.3	82.2
Zoology.....	27	0.0	14.8	48.1	11.1	11.1	14.8	63.0	74.1	85.2
Drawing.....	119	0.0	5.9	52.1	9.2	13.4	19.3	58.0	67.2	80.7
Music.....	13	7.7	7.7	38.5	7.7	7.7	30.8	53.8	61.5	69.2
Total	22975	6.5	18.2	30.1	14.3	12.1	18.8	54.8	69.1	81.2

NUMBER OF CANDIDATES RECOMMENDED FOR "FULL AND
SATISFACTORY PREPARATION" AND PERCENTAGES OF
GRADES RECEIVED BY SUCH CANDIDATES.

	Number of Candidates	Ratings 90-100 %	Ratings 75-89 %	Ratings 60-74 %	Ratings 50-59 %	Ratings 40-49 %	Ratings 30-39 %	Ratings 20-29 %	Ratings 10-19 %	Ratings 0-9 %
English.....	2064	0.8	15.0	38.7	17.4	16.1	11.9	54.5	71.9	88.1
History										
A. Ancient	466	1.7	15.2	36.5	14.1	14.8	17.6	53.4	67.6	82.4
B. Med. and Mod.	36	0.0	5.6	30.6	11.1	16.7	36.1	36.1	47.2	63.9
C. English	269	0.4	6.7	30.1	19.0	18.2	25.7	37.2	56.1	74.3
D. American	416	0.2	6.7	27.2	19.7	21.6	24.5	34.1	53.8	75.5
	1187	0.8	10.0	31.6	17.3	18.0	22.4	42.5	60.6	77.6
Latin	3182	2.4	23.1	32.3	14.6	10.7	17.0	47.7	72.3	83.0
Greek.....	402	5.5	39.1	36.3	8.0	4.7	6.5	80.8	88.8	93.5
French.....	1196	4.6	27.3	39.2	14.5	7.5	6.8	71.2	85.7	93.2
German.....	1178	3.4	22.5	37.3	12.6	10.3	14.0	63.2	75.7	86.0
Spanish.....	7	0.0	42.9	14.3	0.0	28.6	14.3	57.1	57.1	85.6
Mathematics.....	4250	21.9	22.8	22.7	8.9	8.3	15.3	67.5	76.4	84.7
Physics.....	482	9.1	27.0	30.9	8.9	7.3	16.8	67.0	75.9	83.2
Chemistry.....	320	9.1	21.6	32.5	15.0	11.6	10.3	63.1	78.1	89.7
Botany.....	13	7.7	0.0	30.8	0.0	7.7	53.8	38.5	38.5	46.2
Geography.....	23	4.3	21.7	34.8	21.7	8.7	8.7	60.9	82.6	91.3
Zoology.....	24	0.0	12.5	50.0	12.5	8.3	16.7	62.5	75.0	83.3
Drawing.....	73	0.0	6.8	57.5	9.6	12.3	13.7	64.4	74.0	86.3
Music	5	0.0	20.0	20.0	0.0	20.0	40.0	40.0	40.0	60.0
Total	14406	8.5	21.5	31.5	13.0	10.8	14.7	61.5	74.5	85.3

The following table institutes a comparison between the results of the examinations in all subjects of the last five years:

Ratings	Per Cent 1909	Per Cent 1910	Per Cent 1911	Per Cent 1912	Per Cent 1913
90-100	4.1	3.4	3.6	5.6	6.5
75-89	14.8	16.3	18.1	18.4	18.2
60-74	29.9	31.5	31.0	30.3	30.1
50-59	14.3	13.3	13.8	14.1	14.3
40-49	13.7	13.6	13.1	12.2	12.1
30-39	23.2	22.0	20.4	19.4	18.8
20-29	48.8	51.2	52.7	54.4	54.8
10-19	63.1	64.5	66.5	68.4	69.1
0-9	76.8	78.1	79.6	80.6	81.2

According to this table, the proportion of candidates receiving a rating of 60 or more has increased gradually, but without interruption since 1909.

The following table indicates the proportion of candidates in history obtaining a rating of at least 60:

Subject	1909	1910	1911	1912	1913
History					
A. Ancient	41.0	43.6	40.2	39.5	48.5
B. Mediaeval and Modern	20.5	15.5	38.1	26.0	26.6
C. English	39.8	32.0	37.1	24.0	32.6
D. American	38.8	35.4	47.3	34.2	29.8

Secretary Fiske's Report upon History

For a number of years the examinations in history set by the College Entrance Examination Board have attracted much attention from history teachers throughout the country. Comment and criticism have been directed especially to the small proportion of candidates who make a creditable showing at these examinations. Last autumn the Committee on Examination Ratings sent copies of the question papers in history for 1912 to a number of representative teachers of high standing, asking them to study the papers and give the Board the benefit of their frank and candid criticisms. The replies received showed care and thought, and were of much interest. A distinguished professor of history, who has given a great deal of study to the subject of entrance examinations, wrote: "The questions appear admirable on the whole. While stiff enough, they are sound and well chosen." On the other hand, a very distinguished woman professor of history wrote that she felt that "the history examinations are not suited to incoming freshmen, because they demand more judgment and maturity on the part of the student than one has a right, at that stage of his development, to require." The replies from the secondary school teachers were extremely interesting, and while they did not show the same divergence as the views of these two college professors, there was considerable variation in their opinions. While they criticized certain points unfavorably, on the whole they found the papers fair. Perhaps the best summary of their views is found in the opinion of one of the teachers who said: "Any pupil who has a full one-year course ought to receive a rating of at least 50 on any of the papers, but few pupils from such a course would get over 80."

The Committee on Examination Ratings reported: "There are indications that the history examinations are taken by many candidates who have not had an adequate course in school, but who feel that history is a subject that can easily be prepared by simple reading or cramming. This probably accounts for a part at least of the failures, but it is difficult to secure authoritative evidence on the point."

Professor Fite's Findings

Professor E. D. Fite, who served both as associate examiner and chief reader in history, submitted some weeks after the close of the examinations a very valuable report from which the following extract may be quoted:

"In the first place, it must be remembered that the following statistics are incomplete. Many candidates failed to fill out the questions as to the nature of their preparation in history, and many filled them out incompletely. None of the tables, therefore, is absolutely correct, but I hope that they are sufficiently full to show tendencies. Now that we have the results, I do not think that they are so convincing and overwhelming as we expected.

TABLE A 1—PERCENTAGE OF CANDIDATES OBTAINING 60 OR MORE.

History A.....	50 per cent.
" B.....	25 "
" C.....	33 "
" D.....	30 "

TABLE B 1—PERCENTAGE OF CANDIDATES REPORTING FULL TIME—FIVE PERIODS A WEEK FOR ONE YEAR.

History A.....	37 per cent.
" B.....	30 "
" C.....	24 "
" D.....	35 "

TABLE C 1—CANDIDATES OBTAINING AT LEAST 60—PERCENTAGE WHO GAVE TO THEIR PREPARATION A SPECIFIED NUMBER OF PERIODS.

	NUMBER OF CANDIDATES	PER CT. 5 PDS.	PER CT. 4 PDS.	PER CT. 3 PDS.	PER CT. 2 PDS.	NOT STATED
History A.....	391	30	30	24	4	12
" B.....	15	33	6	46	6	9
" C.....	131	10	29	48	4	9
" D.....	191	30	21	22	4	23

TABLE D 1—CANDIDATES OBTAINING LESS THAN 60—PERCENTAGE WHO GAVE TO THEIR PREPARATION A GIVEN NUMBER OF PERIODS.

	NUMBER OF CANDIDATES	PER CT. 5 PDS.	PER CT. 4 PDS.	PER CT. 3 PDS.	PER CT. 2 PDS.	NOT STATED
History A.....	401	36	18	22	5	19
" B.....	45	26	20	26	5	23
" C.....	266	27	20	23	8	22
" D.....	445	37	18	20	9	16

TABLE E 1—CANDIDATES GIVING TO THEIR PREPARATION A SPECIFIED NUMBER OF PERIODS. PERCENTAGE WHICH OBTAINED A RATING OF AT LEAST 60.

	PER CENT. 5 PERIODS	PER CENT. 4 PERIODS	PER CENT. 3 PERIODS	PER CENT. 2 PERIODS
History A.....	45	60	48	42
" B.....	21	10	36	25
" C.....	16	39	50	20
" D.....	28	30	32	6

"Of 28 candidates who prepared for the examinations in history with the assistance of private tutors, ten obtained a rating of 60 or better, and 18 fell below 60. Of 35 candidates who prepared themselves for the examinations without assistance, nine obtained 60 or better, and 26 fell below 60.

"The record in Medieval and Modern History is the poorest. Although this is admittedly the most difficult of the four subjects in history, practically every candidate took it in the second or third year, only two or three in the fourth year. It would certainly seem that such a subject should be dropped from the list of examinations for the reason that the schools do not give adequate preparation in it.

"In Ancient History the record shows that 109 candidates made their preparation in the second year, of whom 50 passed and 59 failed. Of the 408 who reported taking the subject in other years, 296 passed and 112 failed. Of those who took it in the second year nearly all who passed did so by very close margins and the failures were very bad ones. Those candidates who prepared in Ancient History during the second year of their school course did poorly for the

¹ Statistics here given are only approximately correct.

reason that the interval between the preparation and the examination was too long; the candidates had too long a time in which to forget, and they were relatively immature at the time that they took the subject.

"It will be observed that the candidates in Ancient History made the best showing. The record indicates, also, that the schools allow fuller time here for study; more candidates gave five periods a week to their work in Ancient History than in any other subject.

"It seems plain that the schools ought not to complain of the difficulties of the examination papers. Let them rather look to their programs and give full

time to history. Then their candidates will do better work at the examinations. Yet as the records unfortunately show, a five period a week course throughout the year is no royal road to passing the examination."

From what Professor Fite says, it would appear that a very small proportion of the candidates gave to their preparation in history the amount of time demanded by the Board's requirement. Most of the candidates that gave five periods a week to their work probably spent no more actual time in the class room than many who reported only three or four periods a week.

Mortality in History Examinations and its Causes

BY PROFESSOR EDGAR DAWSON, NORMAL COLLEGE, NEW YORK.

The mortality among those who take the College Board's examination in American history and civics continues to provoke a good deal of comment. Each year (except in 1911) the percentage who pass becomes smaller. In 1909, 38 per cent. of the candidates passed with a mark of 60; in 1910, 35 per cent.; in 1912, 34 per cent., and in 1913, only 30 per cent. When more than a third of those who take an examination fail to pass it, there is a waste of energy which should be prevented. The conclusions in this paper are based on seven years of service as a reader for the College Board, and some knowledge of the attitude of history teachers toward the examination. The object of the paper is to show that the causes of the ill-success of the candidates in the subject of American history and civics lie in the disposition of the educational world to regard history and government as subjects of minor importance in secondary education; a disposition produced in most cases by a lack of familiarity with the subjects themselves or with the purpose for which they are taught. The misconceptions on the part of the educational world must be laid in large measure at the door of those leading teachers and scholars in the field of the historical and political sciences who have not taken the trouble to develop the lower reaches of their subject or to enlighten school administrators where enlightenment would have been useful. The College Board's work supplies a great laboratory of educational results, and this opportunity should be utilized more fully than it is at present.

When a large proportion of the candidates in American history fail, the natural tendency is to lay the blame on the examination questions. If it be made clear that these questions are carefully prepared and are not unreasonable, the blame is shifted to the standard set up by the readers. It is clear to those who are familiar with the work of secondary education, however, that the fault lies neither with the paper nor with the readers, but as has been said, much deeper in our educational system.

First, is the examination too hard? A perusal of the questions themselves gives to most good teachers a sufficient answer to this question. (See the paper

in "American History and Civics," on page 264 of this issue.) The result of an examination of the marks given on 100 papers, each of which received a final mark of 65 or better, gives the following interesting figures:

TABLE BASED ON 100 PAPERS IN AMERICAN HISTORY AND CIVICS EACH RECEIVING A FINAL MARK OF 65 OR OVER.

QUESTION NUMBER	NUMBER OF CANDIDATES	
	ATTEMPTING THE QUESTION	AVERAGE GRADE GIVEN THE QUESTION
1	45	71
2	55	67
3	43	67
4	57	76
5	63	65
6	37	72
7	72	72
8	86	80
9	42	67
10	50	72
11	50	69
12	84	70
13	16	79

It will be observed that less partiality in selecting questions was shown by candidates in this year's examination than in the preceding year. (See this MAGAZINE for December, 1912.)

The paper is the result of the most painstaking care on the part of teachers all of whom have had experience in teaching history in secondary schools. Professor H. D. Foster, the chief examiner, outlines the process of making up the questions as follows:

"(1) Each of the three examiners makes out an examination paper for each course. (2) These papers are sent to the other examiners for criticism. (3) These criticisms by his colleagues are submitted to each maker of a paper, and he rejoins, either accepting criticisms (in part or as a whole) or giving his reason for their rejection. (4) The chief examiner then makes out a trial paper of questions that either in their original or modified form have passed muster. (5) This trial paper is submitted to each

examiner. (6) On the basis of criticisms this is revised and resubmitted by the chief examiner to his associates. (7) Then comes a personal conference of the three examiners to determine the final form of the paper. (8) The printed proof sheets go before the Committee of Review (seven teachers, including three secondary teachers) who have ample time to go over the paper by themselves and criticize it. (9) Then the printed proof thus criticized comes before the Committee of Revision composed of the chief examiners in various subjects and not less than five representatives of secondary schools.

"General criticisms of the paper as a whole or specific criticisms of particular questions are always welcomed and given consideration, and critics and others are invited to suggest questions that would remove the ground for criticism. Questions submitted by both college and secondary teachers are considered annually and are utilized if possible in the paper. The examiners have been in correspondence with individual members of the Committee of Five and have invited and received questions submitted by them which have been incorporated in the examination paper."

One examiner is always a secondary school man, and each of them for a number of years has had long experience in secondary school work. If information and care can produce a good paper, this one should be good. Let us see whether it is.

By way of general criticism of the questions it may be noted that several of the candidates received marks over 90, and about a score in the 80s. One of the sharpest critics of last year's paper helped to prepare this one, and was wholly satisfied with it. Attention should be called to the fact that since only seven of the thirteen questions are to be answered, the candidate is permitted to omit nearly fifty per cent. of the paper without penalty. The questions are general enough to permit the candidate to tell all he knows, and pointed enough to make it clear to him the sort of information the examiners want, if he knows anything about the subject. On this latter condition it is impossible to depend; but it does seem that the candidate who does not earn 60 per cent. in these circumstances and who has had the proper opportunity to prepare for the examination, lacks either the intelligence or the will necessary to make a college course really profitable.

Several of the questions may be noticed more in detail. In the first group, as in several of the others, the paper is so worded as to differentiate between those who have taken only an elementary school course or less and those who have had legitimate college preparation. Both of the first two questions call for conditions underlying or determining certain events. Most of the candidates ignored the demand for conditions. The first question evoked some alleged facts about the aspirations of Columbus; and the second about the things the Englishmen hoped to do in America. That is, the first clause in each of these questions might as well have been omitted from the paper. Last year the paper called for some knowledge of economic conditions; this year question 3

called for social and industrial conditions. Some teachers protest against the use of such terms as "economic" and "social." They say the candidates are thrown into a panic by them, just as they are by the request to "compare" this or that with something else. The answers justified this objection if ill-trained candidates are to be considered. Pupils who find the word economic, write of saving money; and those who come across the word social, talk of parties and balls. Question 4 was the most popular in this group. This question is on a war, and the candidates wrote valiantly about the movements of Burgoyne, but much less fluently about the results of his campaign. These two questions also called for outside reading, but, of course, got little or no response.

Students who knew nothing of the origin of the Republican party (Question 7) could go into minute details about the felling of trees to check the British march, as if this latter could possibly be of the remotest interest to any sane mind at this day, except possibly to that of an antiquarian or a military strategist. One doubts whether a candidate who does not know something of the truth of the origin of the Republican party should be credited with a unit in American history in any circumstances. He has certainly been trying to deal with Hamlet with Hamlet left out. It is true that in answering this question (7) some misread it, and fell into an error that can be understood. Some wrote, for example of the "present" Republican party since the secession of the Progressives.

Question 6 was avoided, possibly because of the latter part of the question which should not have been put into the paper. Few of the school books, if any, treat it adequately. Question 8 gave an opportunity to use memorized facts which rejoices the heart of the master of the cram-school. This would be a good sort of question to ask more frequently, but for the fact that it cannot be regarded, as it should be, as merely a sounding into the candidate's general knowledge. It was answered more generally and with better success than any of the rest. Elementary school boys might have done it almost equally as well. Question 9 was found a little hard and was avoided by a good many candidates. The questions on government still, for some occult reason, continue to deal with Federal Government, about which the student is apt to have only the most theoretical and bookish knowledge. Question 10 deals with constitutional history, and was generally pretty well answered. Our thesis is that these questions are not unreasonable, and certainly neither 9 nor 10 is. Question 13 was avoided in favor of Question 12, probably because the former was long or because the latter is based on a good map in nearly every text-book.

The method and attitude of the readers is of greater importance than are the questions. Any ordinary set of answers to almost any question paper can be read high or low, the grade being determined by the standards of the reader; witness the marks given in the "young ladies' seminaries." The head of the history department of one of the best private secondary schools says "I have no fault to find with the

examinations. They are marked pretty severely I think." The judgment of such a teacher must be respected, particularly since most of his candidates pass. Let us see how the marking is done.

When the work of reading began the group of readers assigned to American history and civics this year selected seven papers. Each reader read all the questions in each paper, keeping his own records. The group then took the grading under discussion, each reader reporting the grade given by him on each question as it was read out. The marks, of course, differed, sometimes quite widely. The discussion corrected the point of view of those disposed to be severe; and stiffened up a little the too generous or lenient. It should be remembered, however, that there were secondary teachers in the group; that many of the college teachers had been secondary teachers; and that the standard for grading an answer was never set with an element disapproved of by the secondary school men, who were recognized as most familiar with the type of student mind under treatment. After the regular reading began no paper was given a mark under 60 without the approval of two readers. As a matter of fact, when two readers confer over a paper about which they differ, the tendency is to give the candidate the benefit of the best mark given on every question by either reader. In other words, the mark resulting from the conference is not always, but tends to be, the sum of the highest marks given each question by either reader. As the reading progressed, and it was found that the dead so far outnumbered the living, frantic efforts were made to find signs of life in every candidate. Anything that could be credited was gathered up and cherished with the greatest eagerness.

The omission of European conditions from the first two questions was not treated as a serious fault if the candidate told a good deal about Columbus or the Puritans and Cavaliers. Dates were thankfully received when they were offered, but if they were not given it was assumed that the candidate had forgotten to give them. If, in Questions 3 or 4, someone happened to mention a book of any sort, he was almost sure to get a little credit for it, whatever the nature of the book might be. When some college reader harked back to the method at a certain well-known university, he was told with the approval of the group that "—'s methods can't be applied here. They are too severe." When a boy said that Jackson "introduced a new policy called squatter sovereignty, which meant giving jobs to politicians"; and another said that each territory keeps a lobbyist at Washington to look out for its interests, these answers were looked upon with the greatest charity, for "who knows what a lobbyist is"? When a candidate described Burgoyne's campaign "up the Hudson," instead of in the opposite direction, but otherwise with some correctness, he was given a fair credit for his answer. Those who tried Question 6 and omitted the second half of it were graded as if the second part had not been asked, because it is not treated in the books as it should be. Even then it was difficult to find 60 per cent. answers to this very reasonable ques-

tion. The geography answers each year inspire one with a little more hope; but it is the hope that comes from observing the beginning of a journey rather than that based on the fact that a good part of the journey has been traversed. While one must give some credit for an otherwise good answer that speaks of the constitution as having been drawn up by the first Continental Congress, not much can be given for putting Virginia west of the Mississippi, Alaska in Russia, or the Philippines in the West Indies. The readers are entirely human, however, and the remark was frequently heard "We have simply got to pass more of these boys."

We must agree that the questions are not unreasonably hard. On the other hand, no one who has spent a day with the readers will believe that they judge the answers much too severely. Why, then, do more than two-thirds of the candidates fail? The answer in general terms is that they are not prepared to take an examination in the subject. Then, why do so many more unprepared candidates come up in this subject than in any other? Because the pedagogical world does not take history seriously; even the university teachers of history and government themselves do not take the secondary school work in the subject seriously. The field is neglected, and is in confusion and disorder. Consequently the poor sub-freshmen have to try but to fail. Specifically, (1) not enough time is allowed for the subject; (2) those who teach the subject are frequently untrained for their work and uninterested in it, being primarily teachers of language or mathematics; and (3) the courses cover an enormous field that has not been properly charted.

On another page of this magazine is printed a part of the report of the secretary of the College Board which proves what teachers of history have known for a number of years. The College Board's Document No. 58 says on page 22 that a unit represents at least 120 hours of 60 minutes each. In practice in most subjects a unit represents a five-hour course taken for a year. Professor Fite found that this year only 35 per cent. of those who reported had taken history five times a week; and that even then the periods were often not an hour long. It should be noted that a large proportion did not answer the questions, and that probably these gave less time than those who reported. The 35 per cent. does not of course correspond very closely with the 30 per cent. who passed. Some of those who had the subject the full amount of time were stupid or lazy and failed, or they were not adequately instructed. Many of those who gave to history only three periods a week passed. A few others were crowded through by the professional coach, that educational parasite who weakens every joint of our system. No one who knows much about the facts doubts that some principals expect their graduates to pass the history examination with but little over half the preparation they should have. At one of the larger universities a few years ago facts were collected sufficient to prove that "a large number of the schools were spending only three hours a week on history." But such an outcry was raised when the university proposed to ask for a certificate

of time spent on the subject as a prerequisite to a unit credit in history, that the plan was given up. The fight for adequate time was in the interest of the better schools and the better teachers; and in the interest of preventing history from being dropped from among the entrance subjects or being reduced to one-half unit. One of these things must, of course, happen if the schools continue to slight the work. When a hard working teacher with some ideals asks for what is recognized as the legitimate time of a unit subject he is assured that the graduates can pass with three hours of work. Then, if they fail, the blame is placed—where? There is no argument whatever against assigning five hours a week to American history and civics if it is to receive a unit of credit; and every friend of the subject must hope that until this elementary fact is recognized, failure will meet every candidate who comes up inadequately prepared.

It is difficult to give figures to prove that history is taught by teachers less thoroughly trained than are those who handle the languages and mathematics; but the fact can be established by a visit to almost any but the very best schools. A teacher simply cannot protect himself in a Latin class of bright boys without knowing a little about Latin; but he can hear a memorized lesson in civics without knowing a lobbyist from a referendum. Last year a class in one school was divided in half. Of the part given to an experienced teacher very few failed. Of the other part in the hands of an untrained teacher about ten times as many failed. This all argues no perversity on the part of school administrators. They do not know that a man cannot teach history without having studied it. Everyone who does know the facts, from Mr. Bryce (see Ed. Rev. IV, 174) to the humblest pedagogue, knows that history and civics, particularly the former, is the hardest field in the curriculum in which to do useful teaching.

Parallel with this blindness on the part of those who should select the teachers of history, goes the misconception on the part of the general public, particularly of the would-be student. He thinks he can "read up for a few weeks," or "leave history until the vacation, and read a few books just before the examination," or try the examination on the strength of the primary school course and "my general information." Here again it is impossible to give figures, or to demonstrate the fact mathematically; but the advocate of giving history a respectable place in the curriculum of the school or the small college knows that even the best teachers of other subjects, much less the administrators, have a very dim and hazy idea of what he is advocating. Some pedagogical organ should take this whole subject up and reach some conclusion as to whether the sciences of society are vehicles of education or not; if they are not, let us take them out of the schools that are conducted for mental discipline; if they are, then let us give them decent recognition.

One element of our difficulty seems to lie at the door of the university. Particularly in the East the university is generally indifferent to what happens to

the schools, except at the time of the admission of students. They are waking up a little now, but their eyes are still rather drowsy. The dubious need only ask any university professor of history something about his opinions on secondary school work in his subject. A German university man, accustomed to conducting the *Staatsexamen* of the prospective secondary school teacher would answer with definite and helpful opinions and suggestions. The eastern American is very likely to plead an honest *ignoramus*. As a consequence our text-books are not quite what they should be, and many other things are wrong that university leadership might help us to correct. What this paragraph is meant to emphasize, however, is a difficulty that may be inherent in the subject itself. The present writer is certainly at sea as to any sort of help. American history and civics covers at least three hundred years. This examination paper indicates that it covers the European background of American conditions (Questions 1 and 2); the thread of industrial and economic development (Questions 3 and 6); military campaigns and diplomatic conditions (Question 4); social conditions (Question 3); constitutional history and political and party development (Questions 5, 7, 8, 10, 11); the government of dependencies (Question 9); and the geographical and geological background, not to mention the distribution of plants and animals. Now all this constitutes a mass of material that over-burdens the course. The result is that a teacher is likely to be either old-fashioned and dwell especially on the colonial period, or up-to-date and spend most of his time on the period since the Civil or Spanish War; or to have an economics bent and deal with industrial history, or a political interest that sends him to the evolution of parties and constitutions. He may be a crank on military campaigns or an enthusiast for geography and require the devotion of a good deal of time to map-drawing. And he has good authority for giving his time to any of these. But if his main object, as one frequently hears, is "to get them through the examination," he does nothing of this sort; but he buys or makes a syllabus of all the points the questions are likely to touch and gives the candidate something like the "water-cure." He fills the poor youngster painfully full of odd and unrelated facts.

Those who see the cruel mortality which results from this mismanagement and lack of efficiency or organization turn to rend either the examiners or the readers. They might more properly direct some of their fury either against the school administrators who will give the candidates neither time enough to prepare nor teachers who can guide them in the time they do have; or else against the leaders of education in this field who neglect their duty so to organize the field that the conscientious teacher may educate his charges and not merely cram their poor heads with a mass of indigested or indigestible odds and ends.

Examination Questions for 1913

All history questions set by the College Entrance Examination Board for the June, 1913, examinations:

HISTORY A—ANCIENT HISTORY.

(In each answer give dates.)

GROUP I. (Answer one question.)

1. Show that you have a definite idea of five of the following, writing at least four or five lines on each: Hieroglyphics, Athena, Odyssey, trireme, Herodotus, satrap, Phidias. (Dates may be omitted in this question.)
2. What were the causes of Greek colonization? Describe the method of founding a colony, and state what the relations of a colony were to the mother city.

GROUP II. (Answer two questions.)

3. What were the circumstances leading to the formation of the Confederacy of Delos? In what respects did this confederacy differ from the Peloponnesian League?
4. Describe the ideas of Socrates and his method of teaching, and account for his condemnation. What are the sources of our knowledge of Socrates?
5. What did Philip of Macedon accomplish for Macedonia? Indicate the steps by which he gained control of Greece.

GROUP III. (Answer one question.)

6. Give an account of the careers of the two Scipios and tell why one was called Africanus and the other Aemilianus.
7. Give a brief account of Caesar's conquests in Gaul and Britain. What contemporary source describes the conquests? Mention two or three ways in which these conquests aided Caesar in his later struggle for power.
8. Give an account of the reign of Theodosius.

GROUP IV. (Answer two questions.)

9. Compare the rule given to the provinces of Rome under the republic with that given under the empire.
10. Name three Latin poets of the Augustan Age and one work written by each. Name four Latin historians and one work by each, with brief description of any one work.
11. What were the reasons for the persecutions of the Christians? Who was the first Christian Emperor and what were the circumstances attending his conversion to Christianity?

GROUP V. (Answer one question.)

12. On map 41 show the extent of the Confederacy of Delos and of the territory under the control of Sparta and her allies at the opening of the Peloponnesian War.
13. On map 46a indicate as accurately as possible the place of final settlement of three of the German tribes which invaded territory held at any time by the Roman Empire.

HISTORY B—MEDIAEVAL AND MODERN EUROPEAN HISTORY.

GROUP I. (Answer one question.)

1. Describe the territorial extent of the Empire of Charlemagne. (This may be answered by a map sketched by the candidate which shall show the territory definitely.) What means did he employ to hold the empire together?
2. What services were rendered by the monasteries? What criticisms were brought against the monasteries? Name two famous monks and two famous monasteries.

GROUP II. (Answer one question.)

3. What countries were ruled over by Charles V of Spain at the time of the greatest extent of his empire? In what way did America contribute to the greatness of this empire?
4. Why was Luther summoned to the Diet of Worms? What was done at this Diet?

GROUP III. (Answer two questions.)

5. Describe life at the court of Louis XIV of France. Name several prominent men connected with this court.
6. What part did Gustavus Adolphus and Richelieu play in the Thirty Years' War? How are the religious convictions of the latter to be reconciled with his political actions?
7. Why were Frederick the Great and Catharine II called enlightened despots? Describe the work of one of these rulers.

GROUP IV. (Answer two questions.)

8. What preparations did Prussia under Bismarck make for the Franco-Prussian War? Compare France and Germany as to their state of preparation for the war.
9. Briefly sketch the relation between Turkey and her neighbors since the Crimean War.
10. What part has Russia played in the far eastern question and with what results?

GROUP V. (Answer one question.)

11. On map 60 indicate the location of one important engagement in the Franco-Prussian War, one in the War of Italian Independence, and one in the War of the Spanish Succession. In your answer-book indicate for each battle the victor and the vanquished.
12. On map 84b show the most important possessions or dependencies which England, France, and Germany have in Africa at the present time, and in your answer-book state briefly how one of these countries acquired its possessions.

HISTORY C—ENGLISH HISTORY.

GROUP I. (Answer one question.)

1. Name in succession the conquests of Britain by foreign peoples before 1066 A.D., and give for each the leaders, results, and the date. Which of these has had the most permanent effect on English history? Give your reasons.
2. Describe the system of chivalry, showing the results of your reading outside your text-book. Mention the author and title of any books you have read on chivalry.

GROUP II. (Answer one question.)

3. What were the causes of the quarrel between Henry II and Thomas Becket? Give an account of the struggle.
4. Give an account of the Black Death and its effects, both political and economic. What were the Statutes of Laborers?

GROUP III. (Answer two questions.)

5. Describe two important acts which were passed by the English Parliament in the reign of Henry VIII in separating England from the control of the Church of Rome.
6. Define inclosures and monopolies, and show how they affected the industrial life of England.
7. Explain what is meant by the Restoration, and state what was restored and what was not restored.
8. Describe the important acts of Parliament passed in the reign of Charles II to regulate the religious situation.

GROUP IV. (Answer two questions.)

9. What is meant by the cabinet system of government? In what respects is the English different from the American cabinet? Account for the advance of cabinet government in the reigns of George I and George II.
10. Name the wars in which England took part in the eighteenth century, and indicate what interests she had in each war.
11. Give an account of the electoral reforms in Great Britain since the reform bill of 1832.
12. On map 60 indicate the English dominions in France at the time of their greatest extent. In your answer-book state briefly how the various parts of this territory were acquired by England.
13. On map 81b indicate as accurately as possible the extent of the British Empire at the present day. In your answer-book state briefly how England acquired any two of her colonies or possessions.

HISTORY D—AMERICAN HISTORY AND CIVIL GOVERNMENT.

GROUP I. (Answer one question.)

1. What conditions in Europe led Columbus to undertake his first voyage? What in his previous career fitted him for discovery?
2. What were the conditions in their own country which led Englishmen to migrate to America in the seventeenth century and what did they hope to accomplish by this migration? Include in your answer definite illustrations.

GROUP II. (Answer one question.)

3. Compare the social and industrial conditions in colonial Virginia with those in colonial Massachusetts. Indicate the time which you describe. Mention the author and title of any books, outside your text-book, which you have used on this subject.
4. Give an account of Burgoyne's campaign, and indicate the importance of its results. Mention the author and title of any books, outside your text-book, which you have used on the Revolution.

GROUP III. (Answer three questions.)

5. Describe the Presidential election of 1824, and show how its results affected the political fortunes of John Quincy Adams and Henry Clay.
6. What were the leading causes of the panic of 1837? Of 1860-1861?
7. Describe the origin of the present Republican party.
8. Show that you have a definite knowledge of five of the following, writing at least four or five lines on each; the Webster-Hayne debate, Nullification, the Compromise of 1850, the Free Silver campaign, commission form of government for cities, McKinley tariff act.
9. What two states have lately been admitted into the Union? Trace the steps by which a territory usually attains statehood.

GROUP IV. (Answer one question.)

10. When and how was the Constitution of the United States formed? How was it adopted? Compare the Constitution of the United States with the Articles of Confederation.
11. Describe the method of nomination and election of a President of the United States.
12. On map 85b indicate as accurately as possible the territorial gains of the United States in North America since 1783, showing for each the date and method of acquisition.

GROUP V. (Answer one question.)

13. On map 88b indicate what States were at war with the United States in January, 1863, and in your answer-book tell what became of the slaves therein. Also indicate on the same map other States where there were slaves at that time, and in your answer-book tell what became of these slaves.

Each candidate will also answer briefly the following:

- (a) In what grade of school (high school, academy, or private school of high-school grade) and in what year of the school did you study this course?
- (b) Number of weeks and periods per week devoted to course?
- (c) Author and title of text-book used in course?
- (d) Authors and titles of any books in addition to the text-book used in connection with the course?

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The Panama Canal as an Historical Topic

BY ARTHUR C. MILLSPAUGH, HEAD OF THE DEPARTMENT OF HISTORY, MISSOULA COUNTY HIGH SCHOOL, MISSOULA, MONT.

In the April, 1913, HISTORY TEACHER'S MAGAZINE, an admirable article by Mr. Howard C. Hill, redirected our attention to "The Teaching of History by Type Studies." Any teacher, whether he professes devotion to the topical method or not, recognizes that we must treat with considerable thoroughness, certain events, events that may not be dominant or even in the main thoroughfare of History, but which are especially significant of times and tendencies. Such an event, in my opinion, is the building of the Panama Canal. Because it is a contemporary event is, to me, an additional reason for its full and careful treatment; for it should be the "ever-conscious aim," not only of authors but of teachers, to teach the past so as to interpret the present, to enable the student "to catch up with his own times; to read intelligently the morning paper." The Canal is not only an absorbing interest of the present, compelling attention, but it is also strongly typical of contemporary world-life; of American nationality and resources, both political and economic; of world-commerce; and of internationalism. Of course, in the last decade of American history, there are other topics, which are more vital, as for example, the awakening of the American people to the problem of corporate wealth. It is safe to say, however, that there is no other topic of equal interest, of such picturesque and crystal-clear concreteness, or possessing so many enlightening ramifications and inter-relations.

An aim of high school history-study should be to train in the power of concentration and analysis, of seeing and weighing every element that enters into a specific problem. The topic that I have suggested responds admirably to this aim. The Canal idea germinated deep in the Past; its final fruition will come when the traveller of Macaulay's fancy has extended his sketching tour to Colon. The subject of the Canal is many-rooted, many-sided. In one way or another, it is the vital concern of cities, States, and sections; it has already become a positive factor in international relations; and it promises to draw a new map of world-power. It is a revolution. A history class must not think that the past gives us a key to the future, or that vague speculation is sound thinking. Nevertheless, the effects of the Canal, problematical as many of them are, can be made useful exercises in analysis and interpretation.

If the class has been taught to trace lines of progress, it will see that the Canal is one of the final steps in our long and checkered process of nationalization. It is a part of that westward-looking and westward-going, which has been a unique characteristic of our national development. It has captured the attention of the whole country, giving us an object-lesson of our resources, power and efficiency, awakening a general pride and fine sense of responsibility, and thrilling us with a new and hopeful patriotism. The Canal, also, has its place in other historical pigeon-holes. It is, for instance, the consummation of Columbus' dream of an air-line to the East; it projects another big factor into our transcontinental transportation problem; it emphasizes our rather vague tendency to expand southward; it lends color and immediateness, if not warmth and sureness, to our South American relations; it is a step in the growth of California, British Columbia and Australia; it transforms New Orleans into a Pacific port; and it multiplies the strength of our navy.

Partly because it is big politically, economically, diplomatically and scientifically, partly because it is big physically—the Canal has become an object of consuming interest the country over. Everybody feels a proprietorship in it; everybody pretends a partial knowledge and admits a partial ignorance regarding it. Magazine articles on the Canal are appearing in bewildering number. The face of Col. Goethals has become almost as familiar as that of the President who appointed him. Stereopticon lecturers have carried the Canal from Walla Walla to Oshkosh. Steamship lines feature excursions to the Zone. Books, historical and otherwise, have appeared and are announced. During the past summer, department stores in Philadelphia and Chicago erected realistic reproductions of the Canal Zone, showing every essential feature of the "big ditch"; and an interesting lecture, given at intervals every day, accompanied the "locking through" of a miniature steam-ship. These enterprising demonstrations were witnessed by thousands. Coincidentally, the largest amusement park of Chicago advertised as one of its chief attractions a larger and more spectacular reproduction of the Canal. In the midst of this public interest, teachers will find their classes eager, enthusiastic, full of questions.

I have no cut-and-dried method of presentation to recommend; but include some suggestions growing out of my experience during the past year. In its preliminary survey of the geography of the New World, a moment can be taken to note the position and importance of the Isthmus. The expeditions of Balboa, Magellan and Drake will emphasize its significance. Ask the class why one Isthmian town is called Colon, another Panama, and the future terminal port, Balboa. In connection with the Spanish conquests, mention the fact that Charles V, as early as 1520, ordered a canal survey to be made; and that there were interoceanic projects during the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries.¹ The great scientist Humboldt suggested nine routes for a canal. An interesting map in the "McKinley Illustrated Topics for American History" (U 39) shows the number and variety of proposed routes. Reaching the nineteenth century, the class should note and interpret such pertinent events as the discovery of gold in California, emigration to the Pacific coast, the Clayton-Bulwer treaty, the building of the Panama Railroad in 1855, and the construction of the first trans-continental railroad in the '60's. The Spanish-American War, of course, looms large among pre-canal events. The long trip of the "Oregon" demonstrated strikingly our military need of a canal; and the results of the war,—our new position as a Caribbean, a Pacific, a Far-Eastern and a world power, our inevitable naval program, our more aggressive Monroe Doctrine,—all these made imperative the construction of the water-way and its construction by the United States. The class is now ready to study in more detail the immediate problems; the beginning of construction by French companies; the choosing between the Nicaragua and the Panama route; the abrogation of the Clayton-Bulwer treaty and the drafting of the Hay-Pauncefote treaty; the negotiations with Columbia; the Panama Revolution; the acquisition of the Zone; the difficulties and progress of the engineering work; the question of fortifications; and the dispute with England over tolls.

¹ See American History Leaflets, No. 34, for Interoceanic Canal projects (pub. by P. P. Simmons Co., New York).

No text in American history contains material enough for a three or four days' study of the Canal. The best means to supplement the text will be determined, of course, by the foresight and ingenuity of the teacher and the resources of the school library. Teachers will find useful the admirable Canal numbers issued in 1912 and 1913 by the *Scientific American*, "*Scribner's Magazine*" and "*The Century*," and the articles on the Canal which appeared in "*World's Work*" in 1913. The pictures in "*Collier's*," "*Harper's Weekly*" and "*Leslie's*" are also notable. Equally useful material is constantly appearing in these and other magazines. At this stage of the history course, students should be reading the daily newspaper and the weekly digests; and they are likely to find there up-to-the-minute news items of interest and suggestiveness. Many magazine articles, with their illustrations from photographs, constitute source-material of the clearest authority.

In presenting the subject to my class, I drew on the black-board a large-scale map of the Canal Zone and put, in their appropriate places on the map, pictures representing practically every important feature of the work. The following questions were intended to guide the class in its study of the map and pictures.

1. What is the length of the Canal? Its width? Its depth?
 2. How many locks? Where are they? Length? Width? Lift? How are the gates operated?
 3. Where is Gatun Dam? Why necessary?
 4. Where is the Spillway? Why necessary?
 5. What services are performed by the Chagres River?
 6. Describe Culebra Cut. What causes "slides"?
 7. How is the digging done? Where is the "spoil" dumped? How are the dirt-trains unloaded?
 8. How is electricity generated? To what use is it to be put?
 9. Describe buildings on the Zone. Why of this type?
 10. To what extent will the Canal shorten ocean voyages?
- In addition, I assigned the following "problem" questions:

1. What was the sanitation problem of the Isthmus? How was it solved?
2. What were the difficulties in getting a labor force? How was the present force secured?
3. Why is the government of the Zone called a "benevolent despotism"? Who is the "despot"? Has this kind of government proved efficient?
4. What considerations entered into the question of fortifying the Canal? Give reasons why you favor or oppose fortifications?
5. What is the "Panama Canal Tolls" question? What is your opinion on it?
6. Explain two engineering problems and how they were solved?
7. What is the probable economic relation of the Canal to: the Mississippi River? New Orleans? The Pacific Coast? Freight-rates? The west coast of South America?

The informal discussion of these questions followed a recitation period given to the historical background of the Canal and another to reports on selected topics. Except for the reports, the class had no specific reading references. We made no attempt to exhaust the subject, or any aspect of it, or to settle any debatable questions. The aim was to stimulate thought, to provide a clearinghouse as well as a "house of correction," for information already acquired, to afford an opportunity for self-expression, to organize and clarify a living theme. The class entered upon the work with zest; and various members brought in original contributions.

The topic could be made more interesting by the use

of a stereopticon or projectoscope. In some schools, it might be possible also for boys to make a miniature reproduction of the Canal as an addition to the school's historical museum. Debates might be arranged on the justice or expediency of Roosevelt's acquisition of the Zone, the necessity of fortification, or the desirability of exempting our coast-wise ships from the payment of tolls. Of course, a teacher, in the limited time at his disposal, cannot try every "stunt" that may occur to him. Even an attempt to get a bird's-eye view of the whole topic is well-nigh impossible. Still, in my opinion, it is decidedly worth attempting. A lop-sided concentration on two or three sub-topics will rob the work of much of its interpretative value and much of its stimulus and enthusiasm.

The Suez Canal offers an opportunity for comparison as well as contrast; for example, in its effect on trade routes, its determination of British policy in Egypt, and its augmentation of British power in the trans-isthmian region.

The class should never lose sight of the significance of the Canal in our national development. In addition, they should note its significance in world history. Let them compare the Canal as a national achievement with the Pyramids or the Great Wall, and they will grasp some essential differences between ancient and modern civilizations.

PERIODICAL LITERATURE

MARY W. WILLIAMS, M.A., EDITOR.

"Revue d'Histoire Diplomatique" for July contains a detailed account of the influence and activities of the "Italians in Greece" during the fourteenth century.

"In the Streets of Tokyo" ("The Outlook," September 27) by Hamilton W. Mabie, is an interesting description of the Japanese capital as it now exists, but with various glimpses of its past history.

"The World's Work" for October contains an article by Philip Halsey Patchin on "The Strong Man of China." It is a personal study of Yuan Shih Kai, "the last hope of the empire, the first leader of the republic."

"Chartism, English Socialism of 1830-1848" ("Revue des Deux Mondes," September 1) by Emile Faguet, of the French Academy, a brief, but clear and interesting description of the Chartist movement is in the form of a review of Edouard Dolléans' recent work, "Chartisme."

"Portugal is veritably the most interesting country in Europe, if by interesting be implied the presentation of a liberal array of delightful and unheralded surprises." This opinion is given in "The New Republic; some Impressions of a Portuguese Tour," an illustrated article by Charles Lincoln Freeston ("Scribner's Magazine," October).

"The Romance of American Archeology," by Arthur Chapman, ("Overland Monthly," September) is an illustrated account of the work done by the School of American Archaeology towards studying and restoring the cliff and pueblo dwellings of the Southwest, and the ancient Mayan city of Quirigua, in Guatemala.

Interesting and frequently amusing incidents connected with the Austrian campaign in Italy are given by Dorothea Gerard in "Cornhill Magazine" for September. They are based on the diary of a young Austrian officer, and conversations held with him by the writer.

"How Holland Manages her Colonies" was the subject of the June convocation address of the University of Chicago, delivered by Jonkeer John Loudon, Netherlands' minister to the United States. The success of the Dutch colonial system is due to the fact that Holland regards the Dutch East Indies not as possessions, but as part of

the realm, a very important part, which should be treated on lines of equality. ("University of Chicago Magazine," July.)

Under the title "Sir Walter Raleigh's Last Colony of Roanoke" ("Blackwood's Magazine," September) G. Cunningham Terry describes the "gray-eyed Croatans, with old-style English speech, and crossbow weapons"—about four thousand in all, who, out of consideration for the claim that they are descendants of Raleigh's lost colonists, are now regarded as a separate race in North Carolina with separate schools and separate school fund. The home of the Croatan "Indians" is in Robeson County.

Francis McCullach, in "The British Review" for September, quoting the Roumanian home secretary, explains the "decline and fall of the Bulgars" by the fact that the Bulgarians are "veritably a nation of peasants." The character of the average citizen resembles the character of the government. Placed as they were geographically between the Roumanians and Greeks, "the two cunningest and most dishonest races of the decadent Graeco-Roman breed," the author remarks, the "blunt, simple-minded, slightly stupid and comparatively honest Bulgar has met the fate which he might have expected."

"The Relation of the United States to the Philippine Islands," considered by Professor Bernard Moses in "The

University of California Chronicle" for July, is largely a comparison of American and Spanish methods in the islands. The Spaniards tried to civilize the natives by baptism into the Christian church; the United States has avoided interference with religious practices, but has aimed to promote progress by giving the Filipinos a common language, thus making intellectual and political unity possible as well as opening up a channel of thought between them and the West. The Spanish policy, on the contrary, was to keep them ignorant of the language of a dominant nation, and thus retain them in an inferior position. During the Spanish period occupation strictly determined social status; the American control endeavors to show the dignity of all work.

"The National Geographic Magazine" for September is devoted entirely to Egypt. It contains three articles as follows: "The Resurrection of Ancient Egypt," by James Baikie, including a description of the discovery and character of the Tell-el-Amarna letters; "Reconstructing Egypt's History," by Wallace N. Stearns, an account of the work done through the Egyptian Exploration Fund; and "The Sacred Ibis Cemetery and Jackal Catacombs at Abydos," by Camden M. Cobern, which describes a recent remarkable find. As usual, the articles are illustrated by an abundance of excellent photographic views.

Reports from the Historical Field

WALTER H. CUSHING, EDITOR

NOTES.

Professor John M. Coney, Professor of History in Princeton University, died last July, after a short illness. His many friends appreciated the spirit of worth and character which lay under his quiet modesty.

Professor W. I. Ferguson will serve as professor at the American School of Classical Studies at Athens, during 1913-14.

Professor R. F. Scholz, of the University of California, is lecturer in Ancient History, at Harvard, during the first half-year.

Professor Susan M. Kingsbury, head of the department of Economics at Simmons College, will spend the academic year 1913-14 abroad.

Professor William E. Lingelbach, of the University of Pennsylvania, is delivering a series on Modern European History, at Princeton University.

Dr. Arthur H. Woodworth, of Easton, Pennsylvania, has accepted the professorship of history and political science at Hanover College, Indiana.

Principal H. J. Stockton, of the Johnstown High School, is chairman of a committee of the Pennsylvania State Educational Association, appointed to investigate the feasibility of standardizing and unifying history teaching in the state.

The History Section of the Central Ohio Teachers' Association will meet in Dayton on November 7 and 8. The program contains a number of interesting topics for discussion.

The Harvard University press announces a List of References on the History of the West, by Frederick J. Turner.

Professor A. C. Coolidge and Dr. H. L. Gray, of Harvard University, will be absent on leave during the first half of the present academic year; Professor Ephraim Emerton will be away during the second half-year.

The seventh annual meeting of the Ohio Valley Historical Association was held at Lexington, Kentucky, on October 23 to 25. Five sessions were held, at which many papers of local interest were read and discussed. An excursion was made to Ashland, the home of Henry Clay. In addition to a strong executive committee and other officers, the association has appointed two standing committees on Local History in the public schools and on Historical Manuscripts respectively. The corresponding secretary is David Carl Schilling, Hamilton, Ohio.

The Bureau of Education still has copies of many of its bulletins on various phases of education available for free distribution, and many others can be obtained for a nominal sum from the Superintendent of Documents, Government Printing Office, Washington, D. C. The full list of these bulletins with those available for free distribution and available by purchase can be obtained from Commissioner P. P. Claxton, Bureau of Education.

The last examination before appointments are made to educational positions in the Philippine Islands for the summer session of 1914, will be held in various parts of the country, December 30 and 31, 1913. Details of the examinations can be obtained from the Bureau of Insular Affairs, Washington, D. C.

Among the subjects for which teachers are desired, are women for home economics and men for agriculture, manual training, high school science, mathematics, English and history.

M. Henri Labrone, professor of history at the Bordeaux Lycee, in an appeal for certain reforms in French instruction, recalls several impressions of his visit to America. One of the things which particularly impressed him was the reproduction of a Republican national convention, by students of Columbia University. French professors are not expected to teach their pupils history after 1875. The Frenchman therefore must pick up his knowledge of modern politics as best he can, while the American boy enters

manhood fully equipped to take an intelligent part in the political progress of his country. M. Labrone has much admiration for the manner in which politics and political science are taught in American schools and colleges.

MIDDLE STATES ASSOCIATION.

The fall meeting of the History Teachers' Association of the Middle States and Maryland, will be held at Albany, on November 29th, in connection with the meetings of the Association of Colleges and Preparatory Schools of the Middle States and Maryland. The general topic of the meeting will be "The Training for Citizenship." Speakers will be Professor Charles A. Beard, of Columbia University, Dr. James Sullivan, of the Boys' High School, Brooklyn, N. Y.; and Dr. James Lynn Barnard, of the School of Pedagogy, Philadelphia. The papers will be discussed by Professor A. W. Risley, of the State Normal College at Albany, Miss Jessie C. Evans, head of the history department, William Penn High School, Philadelphia, Mr. Edgar W. Ames, head of the history department, Troy High School, Dr. George D. Luetscher, of the Jamaica High School, New York City, Principal W. A. Wetzels, High School, Trenton, N. J., and Dr. A. W. Dunn, of the National Municipal League, New York.

METROPOLITAN MUSEUM OF ART.

The Metropolitan Museum has issued with the September number of the Bulletin, a supplement devoted to the "Museum and the Schools." Of special interest to the teachers of history in the Metropolitan district are the talks announced for the coming year. The first course is designed for teachers in the elementary schools of New York City, and "is intended to present material in such form as to make it directly available for use with children." The dates and subjects are as follows:

- Oct. 14. Life and Customs in Early Egypt.
- Oct. 21. The Parthenon.
- Oct. 28. A Roman House.
- Nov. 4. A Mediaeval Knight, His Castle Furnishings and His Armor.

Nov. 11. The Holland of our Dutch Settlers.

Nov. 18. Portraits and Furniture of Colonial Days.

"The second course will consist of general talks on the collections for high school teachers." The dates and subjects are as follows:

- Oct. 16. Egypt.
- Oct. 23. Greece.
- Oct. 30. Rome.
- Nov. 6. Middle Ages.
- Nov. 13. Renaissance: Architecture and Sculpture.
- Nov. 20. Renaissance: Painting and Minor Arts.
- Dec. 4 and 11. Modern Painting.
- Dec. 18. Modern Sculpture.

The third course, also for high school teachers, will be devoted to the study of painting. "The object of this course is not only a study of selected Schools and Masters of Painting as illustrated in the Museum Galleries, but a study of the paintings in relation to history and literature." The dates and subjects follow:

- Feb. 19. Renaissance, Italian.
- Feb. 26. 17th Century, Dutch and Flemish.
- Mar. 5. 18th Century, English.
- Mar. 12. 19th Century, French.
- Mar. 19. Early American.
- Mar. 26. Contemporary.

AMERICAN HISTORICAL ASSOCIATION.

The annual meeting will be held in Charleston, S. C., Monday and Tuesday, December 29-30, and in Columbia, S. C., Wednesday, December 31. The conferences or sectional meetings, which open on Monday morning, will in-

clude the following topics: Economic and Social History of the Middle Ages; Historical Materials; American Religious History; Modern English History; Relations of the United States and Mexico; Military History; Colonial Commerce; Ancient History; and there will be special conferences of Historical Societies, Teachers of History and Archivists. At the session of Monday evening will be delivered the Presidential address of Professor William A. Dunning of Columbia University, and at the same time on Tuesday, there will be a general session on American History. In Columbia, there will be a joint session with the Mississippi Valley Historical Association at which, also, the papers will lie in the field of American History.

Teachers of history in the schools will have special interest in the session on Historical Materials and more particularly in the conference of History Teachers. Both of these conferences will be held in Charleston. For the last, papers have been promised by Professor N. W. Stephenson of the College of Charleston, by Professor Henry Johnson of Teachers College, Columbia University, and by Professor B. W. Bond, Jr., of Purdue University; and these papers will be discussed, it is hoped, by other persons of experience in the teaching of History. The first edition of the program giving detailed information as to the authors and titles of the papers to be presented, the arrangements as to hotels, railroad transportation, etc., and other necessary information, will be sent to members of the American Historical Association about the middle of November. The Association welcomes heartily to its regular session those who are not members and any such person, who desires to secure a copy of the program, may do so by writing to the Secretary of the American Historical Association, 1140 Woodward Building, Washington, D. C., or to Professor St. George L. Sioussat, Chairman of the Committee on Programme, Vanderbilt University, Nashville, Tenn.

NEW ENGLAND ASSOCIATION.

The annual fall meeting of the Association was held in Boston, on Saturday, October 18. In point of numbers this meeting was the largest in recent years, about one hundred and twenty-five attending the morning session, and sixty-one the luncheon. At the business meeting the following officers were chosen for the ensuing year: President, Arthur I. Andrews, Tufts College; Vice-President, Ellen S. Davison, Bradford Academy; Secretary-treasurer, Walter H. Cushing, Framingham, Mass.; Councillors, for two years, Sidney B. Fay, Dartmouth College; Elsie D. Fairbanks, Manchester, N. H.; for one year, Philip P. Chase, Milton Academy. The association now numbers over two hundred and sixty.

The subject for the meeting was Commercial and Industrial History, and was first discussed by Professor Clive Day, of Yale University. He referred, in opening, to the effects of the Industrial Revolution of the 18th century, and the great economic development of the past fifty years on all forms of activity, political and educational as well as industrial. We are changing our systems of education to enable the child to meet the new demands upon him. What contribution can instruction in commercial and industrial history make to this end? First, let us consider the claim of the study of economics to be the best agent in training our children to comprehend the present economic life. This subject is of great importance, but the speaker doubted the wisdom of teaching it in high schools, because two things, an acquaintance with the facts of life, and judgment in reasoning about the facts, are essential, and high school students are deficient in these essentials. The study of economics in the schools must be preceded by work which will effectively train these faculties. What

subject will supply the preliminary training desired? The speaker considered the advantages offered by the study of the history of commerce: it deals with facts; with relatively simple facts; it presents economic facts in their relation to important facts of other kinds, social, legal and political. It yields its best results only when it is combined with other subjects and is taught by one who understands its relation to these other subjects. But is it the best subject for training the student for the responsibilities of business and citizenship? In Professor Day's opinion, the best subject is economic organization, a study of the present and recent past. We must teach the student the economic phenomena of his own locality, and then proceed from these home facts to the bigger facts of national and international organization, and so gradually approach the abstract principles which make up the subject of economics proper. But the instruments are not yet ready for instruction of the kind indicated; so we must fall back on economic history as the best subject for purposes of instruction. It should be taught rather as an introduction to courses in economics than as a part of the school course in history. The facts should be related to the present and future. In this way we can make economic history an active instrument in the lives of our pupils.

Miss Mary L. Sawyer then presented a preliminary report on a syllabus in industrial history. The committee suggest several lines of work:

1. Preparation of a syllabus to be used in high schools, vocational schools, trade and part-time schools.
2. Preparation of an outline history of some of the larger industries.
3. Preparation of a reprint of industrial material in government bulletins, somewhat in the nature of a source book.
4. Preparation of a catalog, showing where such material may be found. The committee decided that the syllabus should be considered first, to be called a Syllabus of the History of the Evolution of Industrial Conditions.
1. A general introduction, consisting of a brief survey of present industrial conditions, leading back to the beginning of the 16th century.
2. Industrial conditions in the 16th century.
3. A study of the great industrial movements and developments from 1700 to the present.

The committee has already prepared the first draft of about two-thirds of the syllabus. The following questions have arisen and the committee would greatly appreciate expressions of opinion from teachers all over the country. Replies should be sent to Miss Mary L. Sawyer, Technical High School, Springfield, Mass.:

1. For what year in the high school should the syllabus be intended?
2. For what time allotment?
3. To what extent should the syllabus be confined to English and American industry? Should European nations be considered?
4. To what extent should the history of industries be included?
5. Should the tariff in the nineteenth century be considered?
6. Shall England and free trade be introduced as a topic?
7. Have teachers using both found the form of the History Syllabus or the Civil Government Syllabus more useful? (The Civil Government Syllabus includes blank pages for notes and some descriptive material. This makes the book more expensive and might hinder its adoption.)

An interesting discussion of the general subject followed, in which Dr. Melvin T. Copeland, of Harvard; Mr. Charles L. Reed, of the Mechanic Arts School, Boston; Mr. Winthrop Tinell, of the High School of Commerce, Boston; Miss Blanche E. Hazard, of the High School of Practical Arts, Boston, and Professor Charles H. Haskins, of Harvard, participated. Mr. E. E. MacNary, of the Vocational School, Springfield, who was unable to be present, summarized his contribution as follows:

1. A special course for industrial schools seems desirable.
2. A special phrasing and interpretation are needed.
3. The course must be short.
4. Development of the course into simple economics seems unavoidable.
5. The scope of the course may not be as broad as in a high school course.

The speakers at the luncheon were President Marion LeRoy Burton, of Smith College, who spoke on the topic, The Educated Person; and Professor A. B. Hart, of Harvard, who related some of his experiences and impressions obtained in the Balkan states last summer.

BOOK REVIEWS

EDITED BY PROFESSOR WAYLAND J. CHASE,
UNIVERSITY OF WISCONSIN.

ROBINSON, JAMES HARVEY, AND BEARD, CHARLES A. *Outlines of European History, Part II, from the opening of the eighteenth century to the present day.* Boston: Ginn & Co. Pp. 555. \$1.60.

This book is intended to be the second volume of a course in European history, the first volume of which remains to be written, the two volumes to be the basis of the work in European history in the High School as recommended by the Report of the Committee of Five. As the authors say in the preface, "The present volume is, in the main, a condensation and revision of the authors' larger work, 'The Development of Modern Europe.'" Much of the subject matter is the same as in the larger work, parts are condensed, some chapters are re-arranged and some parts are omitted. The purpose of the book "is to narrate the history of the past in such a fashion as to help make plain the events and problems of our world . . . to enable the reader to catch up with his own times; to read intelligently the morning paper; to know about the workings of the English cabinet even if he has forgotten about the composition of the Model Parliament."

About half of the book is given to the period from Louis XIV to 1815. Almost two-thirds of this is given to the French Revolution and Napoleon. The other half covers the period from 1815 to 1912. Military affairs and political history are not emphasized as much as economic and social movements. There is an unusually good chapter on the Industrial Revolution. There is also a good treatment of the Reform Movement in England, the Growth of the British Empire, and the Expansion of Europe in the Nineteenth Century. The chief features of the principal European governments are sketched in such a way as to give an idea of their workings. The last chapter has an excellent treatment of the work of the present Liberal Ministry in England, including the Budget question and the Lords' Veto Act, recent social legislation in England and Germany, and closes with an account of recent international affairs.

Marginal topics suggest the substance of paragraphs. Foot notes give occasional reference to source-material to be found in the Readings designed to accompany the two volume edition. At the close of each chapter is given a list of references to books, most of which are or should be accessible to the classes in the average High School. Unlike most recent High School text-books, this book does not contain lists of suggestive questions, topics, or helps to accompany the several chapters.

There are fifteen colored maps, five of which are full page and ten double page maps. These are well selected, but some of them might be more useful to High School students if more explanatory keys were given. In addition to these, there are seven smaller uncolored maps. The illustrations given are better than those usually given in text-books. There are sixteen full page pictures which are well chosen and properly placed in the text. There is only one small cut set in the body of the text.

The appendix contains a list of the rulers of the chief European States since the time of Louis XIV with the dates of each ruler, arranged by countries. There is an eight page index which is sufficiently full, no doubt, but which would be of greater usefulness to High School students if the pronunciation of difficult words was indicated.

The final test of a High School text-book is, of course, in the using, but, on the whole, the subject matter of this book seems to measure up to what such a text-book should be. It may be a criticism against the book that it is a college text-book made smaller, that it presupposes that the High School student has the same ability to get the meaning from the printed page that a college student has; for the language in the main is the same as in the larger work and it was made smaller more frequently by omission than by retelling in simpler form. Still, teachers desiring a book to use with a two-year course in European history with emphasis upon the most recent period as suggested by the Committee of Five, will be interested in giving this volume a trial in the class room.

W. P. SHORTRIDGE, North High School, Minneapolis.

SPEARS, JOHN R. *Master Mariners*. New York: Henry Holt & Co. 1912. Pp. 256. 50c.

The author in earlier works—"The History of our Navy," "Short History of the American Navy," and "Story of the American Merchant Marine"—has shown both technical knowledge of nautical affairs and wide reading in the history of American navigation. In this little volume of the Home University Library, his backward look takes a wider range, and nautical achievements from ancient times to the present and of men of many nations are recorded. His narrative has an engaging quality which, however, would have been enhanced had he omitted many ephemeral terms, such as easy money, best sellers, big money, make good.

It contains much material that high school pupils may read with interest and profit. For example, though the "Sea Kings of Crete" are not mentioned at all among the mariners of the ancient world, there is a useful account of the achievements of other maritime nations of antiquity, notably of the Phoenicians. So, too, of Prince Henry, the Navigator, and the explorers who revealed Africa to the world of the 15th century, and of the Dutch who seized from the Portuguese much of what they had acquired over seas. Occasionally, the author trips, as when he ascribes to Herodotus a description of the battle of Actium (p. 19) or when he treats the French unfairly (p. 206) in his assertion,—"The English had been saturated with hero tales of the sea for 200 years (before 1800); the French had been saturated with Boccaccio."

W. J. CHASE

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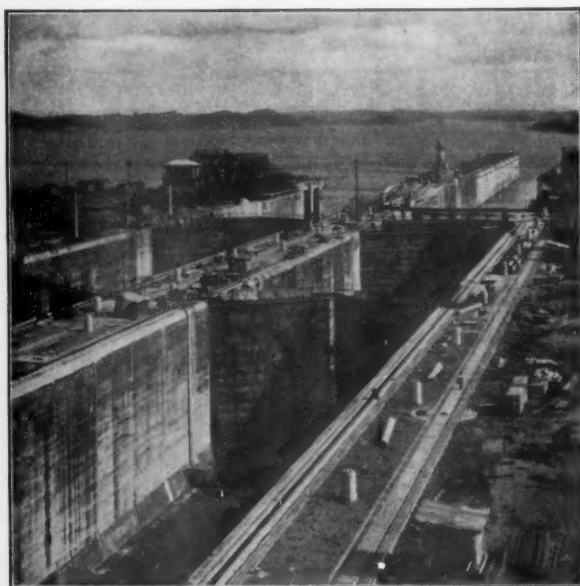
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